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Educational News and Editorial Comment

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO DINNER

The annual dinner of the University of Chicago which occurs during the week of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence will be held at the Twentieth Century Club, Boston, Massachusetts, Wednesday, February 29, 1928. Tickets may be secured from William S. Gray, University of Chicago, for $2.00 each. All alumni and former students of the University are cordially invited to attend.

CHANGES IN THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

The *United States Daily* recently published the following statement issued by the Bureau of Education.

Efforts to improve the materials of instruction through curriculum revision are widespread.

In 72 of 111 cities reporting for the senior high school there has been at least one general revision of the curriculum since 1913. In addition, thirty-nine partial but systematic revisions have been made in the past five years.

In seventy-three cities reporting for the junior high school fifty-eight general revisions since 1913 and nineteen partial revisions during the past five years have been made. Twenty-four cities reporting for the senior high school and

twenty-three cities for the junior high school have adopted a policy of gradual and continuous curriculum revision.

Commonly, changes are made in the curriculum through adding or dropping subjects. Data from ninety cities show a tendency to add subjects approximately three times as often as subjects are dropped. This is a rough measure of the rate of expansion of the high-school curriculum.

The comparative frequency of addition of the various subjects shows a strong trend in emphasis toward the social-science and vocational subjects. The foreign languages are losing their position of relative emphasis, as shown by forty-eight cases of subtraction from the curriculum and only twenty-three cases of addition to the curriculum. They alone show a net loss due to curriculum changes.

The natural sciences show thirty-seven additions and twenty-nine subtractions from the curriculum. This uncertainty is due primarily to the substitution of general science, biology, chemistry, and physics for physiography, botany, zoölogy, and physiology.

These changes collectively indicate a break with tradition in secondary education and an active trend toward curriculum expansion and emphasis upon social and vocational values in the programs that are emerging.

In reconstructing the curriculum, the initiative for reform emanates most frequently from the superintendent. The initiative comes frequently from the principal, however, and in a few cases from high-school teachers and supervisors.

In organizing the personnel for the actual work of curriculum revision, there is usually set up a committee representing the general administrator, supervisors, principals, and teachers. Rarely experts or specialists from without the system are retained.

Progressive practice elsewhere and committee agreement are the most common guides to the selection of new materials. A considerable practice of using the results of previous research is growing up, however, and in a few cases revision is being based upon research undertaken for the purpose.

Present courses of study are most commonly organized about separate subjects, such as algebra, history, etc. In a minority of cases the courses are being organized about large topics based on social activities of the day, socialized group work and individualized study and drill in the tool or skill subjects, or as an activity curriculum with no division into subjects and no provision for other than incidental learning. Only two senior and three junior high schools report the latter plan of curriculum organization.

The courses of study usually specify the general ground to be covered but allow a considerable freedom to the teacher in selecting subject-matter details. Quite frequently specific requirements for bright, average, and dull pupils are set up in outline, and minimal essentials are stated in detail.

In a minority of cases the courses provide only standards and rich suggestions of materials, leaving selection to the teacher, or go to the opposite extreme and specify in detail the precise ground to be covered, leaving no option to the

teacher. In a very few cases courses provide general directions only, leaving to the teacher the task of determining standards and selecting materials.

In the past curriculum changes by adding and dropping courses have been made without the support of precise and trustworthy knowledge. The common method of appraising courses at the present time is informal appraisal by administrative and supervisory officers.

The practice of appraisal through study of the results of testing by the research department or through use of questionnaires and specially designed measurement programs is, however, becoming rather common. This growing practice promises to direct curriculum changes more surely to the ends accepted as desirable.

SCHOLARSHIP AND NUMBER OF UNITS OF WORK TAKEN IN HIGH SCHOOL

The October–November, 1927, issue of the *Educational Research Bulletin* of the Los Angeles city schools contains an article by Celia D. Pierson and Charles Nettels which reports a comparison between high-school pupils pursuing four "solids" and pupils pursuing five such units of work. The results of this comparison are summarized as follows:

In comparing the means of the five- and four-solid groups, we note that for the tenth-grade boys there is no difference; for the eleventh-grade girls there is a very slight difference in favor of the four-solid group; and for the twelfth-grade girls there is a slightly larger difference in favor of the five-solid group. We are able to state further that there is no significant difference between the achievement of these two groups in any of the grades as shown by the bi-serial coefficients of correlation, which are 0.0, .008, and −.036. The factor of intelligence has been controlled by selection of pairs of pupils with identical or practically identical intelligence quotients.

In order to ascertain whether there was greater or less relationship between grade points and intelligence for the four- and five-solid groups, the tenth-grade girls were selected and regular Pearson product-moment coefficients of correlation computed. For the four-solid group this coefficient was found to be 0.44, while for the five-solid group it was 0.52, for 139 cases in each instance. Thus, there is a slightly higher coefficient of correlation between grade points in high school and intelligence for the five-solid group than exists for the four-solid group.

Returning to the definite questions which were asked at the outset, it is apparent from the statistical analysis of this study that there is just no difference between the quality of work done by the group of pupils taking five solids and that taking four solids. It will be remembered, however, that requests for taking five solids were analyzed carefully and that the resulting group was a

selected one. This selected group was then compared with an unselected group of pupils taking four solids. There is evidence, therefore, based on a sizable number of cases, that a selected group of pupils taking five solids may perform as well in their school work as an unselected group of pupils taking four solids. It is further apparent that there is no real difference between the average grades made by these two groups of pupils.

THE PIONEER AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS

An article which appeared in the *Christian Science Monitor* records a fact in American school history which is of special interest because the United States more than any other country has made secondary and higher education accessible to girls. The article is as follows:

When the center of Boston's shopping district was a fine residential quarter, and Lawrences and Quincys, Edward Everett, Wendell Phillips, and Theodore Parker maintained mansions where today's great department stores are, the Boston authorities established the first high school for girls in the United States. Now that high school is celebrating its diamond jubilee.

Seventy-five years of romantic history have made its shining record; its traditions, high in the early years, have grown more lustrous with the passing of time; the evolution of American education for girls has been clearly marked on the pages of its history, and sometimes educational methods which would later come into general use throughout the country have had humble beginnings there.

In 1826 the city of Boston appropriated $2,000 to establish "a public school for the instruction of girls in the higher departments of natural sciences and literature. Of the 300 girls who desired admission, 130 were admitted, and civic officers who turned away the rest perforce marveled at the unexpected demand for such education. Forthwith the standard of entrance requirements was raised, but even then applicants kept pressing in such numbers that Mayor Quincy, apprehensive that the city would be bankrupt if it had to provide such substantial educational facilities, discontinued the school.

The school had already attracted the attention of educators not only in the United States but in England and on the Continent. It had failed for the moment not because higher education for women was a failure but because the city of Boston failed of supporting it. However, nearly twenty-two years later, Nathan Bishop, first superintendent of Boston schools, disarmed opposition with the practical suggestion that the city needed a school where women teachers for primary and grammar grades could be trained.

Such a school was opened on Mason Street, in the midst of the fine old houses of Colonnade Row, its windows looking out upon gardens that in spring were beautiful with peach and apple blossoms. All about were beautiful trees; many eighteenth- and early nineteenth-century houses of wood, with fine fan-

lighted front doors, stood in the gardens. It used to be a necessary part of one's education to go and gaze reverently on the abodes of the local, and sometimes national, great.

In the midst of such attractive surroundings, the Girls' High and Normal School grew and flourished, watched over by friends of education, pointed out with pride to illustrious visitors. By 1870 the school had outgrown its accommodations and was removed to a new mansion on West Newton Street, so palatial in those days, with its reproduction of the Parthenon frieze, the wonderful examples of Greek art, and other ornaments.

In 1872 the two schools were separated, and the Girls' High School was given the special function of providing training and scholarship which would make possible and profitable special study of normal-school methods.

And so the graduates and teachers now celebrating the diamond jubilee of the school feel the natural elation which comes from association with a pioneer movement. The experiment of the Girls' High School became a landmark in the history of education; from the beginning gifted men and women worked to make it succeed; a homelike atmosphere was woven which still endures; and it is enriched now by the traditions of the past, the romance of today, and a vision for the years to come.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN DENVER

The *School Review*, the official publication of the public schools of Denver, Colorado, published in its November issue a statement which indicates that the junior high school is thoroughly established in the Denver school system. The statement is as follows:

Another junior high school is being built. The first unit of the Park Hill Junior High School will probably be ready with the opening of another school year. Its completion will relieve the Gove Junior High School. The seven little portables now at Gove will be abandoned.

While the junior high school is a rather new thing in Denver, schools of this type have been in operation in various parts of the country for a good many years. This school has come as a result of an effort to offer a better type of education to pre- and early adolescent children. The junior high school seemed to offer almost unlimited possibilities. School systems were willing to try the 6-3-3 plan, all the more readily because no educational reason could be discovered for the old 8-4 plan. The only reason that could be discovered for eight years of elementary and four years of high school seemed to be that they "had been."

The first junior high schools in Denver were started at the Evans and Gove Schools in the fall of 1917, the next one at the Broadway School a year later, in 1919 two more at Grant and Logan. Then in December, 1919, the community was asked for an indorsement of this policy, that is, it was asked to vote $2,000,000 in bonds, and it was given to understand that the money would be used for junior high schools. The vote was three to one for the new schools, and Morey, Byers, and Skinner were built.

At the bond-issue election of October 6, 1922, the community again had a chance to approve or disapprove of junior high schools, as the bond ballot carried a separate item of $1,750,000 for two junior high schools. Again, the vote of the community was favorable.

Parents, who will read this article, owe it to themselves and their children to visit one of these beautiful new schools to get a better understanding of what these schools are trying to do. The enriched course in social science, the try-out courses, the training in citizenship, the corrective work of the physical-education department, the many opportunities for self-expression, especially in the auditorium activities, the better teaching of the fundamental subjects constitute a few of the reasons why this new type of school has had this definite approval.

In the Denver public schools all seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade pupils are in junior high schools except 487 seventh- and eighth-grade pupils at Ashland, Barnum, Swansea, and Valverde and 500 ninth-grade pupils at North and West High Schools.

The movement to organize junior high schools has been a very general one. Every section of the country has organized schools of this type. All but three states in the Union have such schools. In the early years of the movement a good many systems adopted a policy of watchful waiting, but by 1920 the junior high school plan had won such general approval that during the next four years the enrolment in these schools increased 927 per cent.

In 1926 the City Club of Denver made quite an exhaustive study and report of the junior high schools in this city. The following paragraphs are quotations from this report.

"The junior high school has become a well-established and recognized institution of education throughout the United States and particularly in Denver. The committee therefore concluded that it was beyond the scope of its purposes and duties to make a critical examination into the reasons and objectives which led to the creation of this particular type of intermediate school in our educational system.

"We are, however, deeply impressed with the fact that this institution has fully justified its existence, because, first, it has demonstrated a tendency to hold pupils at school for a longer period due to the fact that it affords no convenient stopping place as does the old grammar school, where the course was completed just at the time that the law no longer compelled attendance. Secondly, the junior high school explores and determines the interests, aptitudes, and capacities of the pupils so that they become better prepared for higher education or for making a proper choice of their life-work."

THE RELATIVE STANDING OF THE "SCHOOL REVIEW"

A recent issue of the *Educational Research Bulletin* published by the College of Education of the Ohio State University contains an

article by James L. LaPoe, entitled, "The Senior High School Principals' Professional Magazines," which the editors of the *School Review* take the liberty of reproducing in full. The article is as follows:

The returns upon which this study is based were received from the principals of 381 senior high schools to whom questionnaires were sent. The schools are located in 375 cities, and they include all the states and the District of Columbia.

The purpose of the paper is to offer, so far as the data in hand permit, an answer to each of two questions. First, of ten designated professional journals,

TABLE I

CIRCULATION AND HELPFULNESS OF PROFESSIONAL JOURNALS AS REPORTED BY 381 HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

MAGAZINE	FREQUENCIES OF MENTION		PER CENT (COLUMN 3 DIVIDED BY COLUMN 2)	RANK
	Without Respect to Helpfulness	With Respect to Helpfulness		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
School Review	275	125	45.5	1
Educational Administration and Supervision	109	35	32.1	2
American School Board Journal	245	52	21.2	3
Teachers College Record	111	22	19.8	4.5
Journal of Educational Research	101	20	19.8	4.5
Journal of Education	96	18	18.8	6
Educational Review	152	22	14.5	7
School and Society	135	18	13.3	8
State journals of education	279	34	12.2	9
Education	87	9	10.3	10

which ones are most read by senior high school principals? Second, which of the ten periodicals do they regard as most helpful to them in their work?

The names of the ten professional journals are shown in Table I. This table also indicates—Column 2—the number of principals who read each of the periodicals. Column 3 of Table I indicates the number of principals who, in our questionnaire, underscored each magazine as being the most helpful.

In Column 2 we note that *School Review* was mentioned by the largest number of these high-school principals, 275 out of a total of 381. The *American School Board Journal* was second in frequency of mention.[1] Column 3 of Table I is particularly interesting since it shows the helpfulness of the various periodicals. *School Review* was underscored most frequently. This was true not only

[1] The entry in Table I "State journals of education" does not mean one periodical. It refers to the state journal in the particular state in which each high school was located.

in the total figure but also in the details. Principals of both large and small high schools agreed as to the helpfulness of this periodical. On the other hand, as the table indicates, *Education* was underscored least often by the 381 principals.

When we divide the entries in Column 3 by the corresponding entries in Column 2, we get a percentage index, which gives a truer indication of helpfulness than we gain from the gross numbers. By this means two relationships are shown, the usefulness of a given journal in comparison with the extent to which it is read and the usefulness of a journal compared with the usefulness of other journals on the list. These per cents have been computed and appear in Column 4 of Table I. *School Review*, as is seen, has the highest per cent. In other words,

TABLE II

HELPFULNESS IN COMPARISON WITH RESEARCH ARTICLES

Magazine	Helpfulness (Column 4, Table I)	Number of Research Articles	
		1925	1924
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
School Review	45.5	24	28
Educational Administration and Supervision	32.1	23	12
American School Board Journal	21.2	7	4
Journal of Educational Research	19.8	47	51
Teachers College Record	19.8	14	7
Journal of Education	18.8	*	*
Educational Review	14.5	*	2
School and Society	13.3	26	18
Education	10.3	1	2

* Not mentioned.

the greatest proportion of the readers of this journal regard it as their most helpful magazine. The lowest per cent is found in connection with *Education*, and the other journals take intermediate positions, as indicated in the table.

The final ranking of the publications by the principals, as shown by the last column of Table I, is here compared with the rank of the same journals as reported by Dr. Trabue and Dr. Ashbaugh with respect to the number of research articles that appeared in them during 1924 and 1925.[1] The principals made their evaluation during the winter of 1925–26. Dr. Ashbaugh and Dr. Trabue listed a large number of magazines. We have, however, left out of consideration all but the ten, really nine when we exclude the state journals, already mentioned.

The arrangement of the nine magazines when ranked in the manner just indicated is found in Table II.

What can we conclude from Table II as an answer to our question relating

[1] M. R. Trabue, "Educational Research in 1925," *Journal of Educational Research*, XIII (May, 1926), 336–44.

to the helpfulness of research magazines? The following points occur to the writer. No doubt, the reader may discover others.

1. Of the three leading research journals, only one is among the three which lead in helpfulness.

2. The leading research journal, considering only these ten publications, ranks as 4.5 in the principals' ranking.

3. The second highest research magazine is ranked eighth by the principals.

4. The third highest journal in the principals' column is sixth in research.

5. *Education* and *Educational Review* occupy relatively low positions in all rankings.

6. *Teachers College Record* consistently maintains a middle position in all rankings.

7. *School Review*, the only journal among those considered here that is restricted to secondary education, is read by slightly more than 72 per cent of all the principals.

8. Finally, if we omit *School Review*, the one magazine specifically limited to the high-school field, it seems doubtful whether these high-school principals find the leading research journals to be the most helpful.

CO-OPERATIVE MEDICAL CARE PROVIDED BY A TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

The following paragraphs were published by *School Life*.

A "preventorium" for Virginia teachers who need preventive medical treatment has been provided by the Virginia Education Association. It will be located at Charlottesville, in the hospital unit of the University of Virginia, now under construction, and will embrace twenty rooms, accommodating twenty patients at a time. Under the arrangement entered into with the university, a contribution of $40,000 is made by the association toward the cost of the building, $20,000 of which has already been paid, the remaining $20,000 to be paid upon completion of the building.

The charge to teachers will be $4 per day, with a minimum charge of $15 to any patient. This will cover the cost of professional service, room, nursing, board, etc. Physicians and surgeons of the hospital agree to make no charge to patients in the preventorium. Their services include examinations, diagnoses, laboratory tests, X-ray examinations, operations, prescriptions, medical treatment, nursing, and other necessary services.

ADMISSION CREDIT ALLOWED BY COLLEGES FOR TYPEWRITING AND STENOGRAPHY

In a recent issue of the *Bulletin of High Points* of the New York City high schools, Louis Brand, of the George Washington High School, reports the results of a questionnaire study of the practices

of colleges with regard to the acceptance of credits in stenography and typewriting for admission. The questionnaire was sent to 634 colleges. Replies were received from 503 institutions with the following results.

Of the colleges reporting, 387 state that they allow credit ranging from one-half unit to four units, some in stenography alone, some in stenography with typewriting, and a few in typewriting only. Of course, the most interesting part of these questionnaires was that in which reasons for recognition or for no recognition were stated.

Fifty-four colleges stated definitely that they recognize and give credit to stenography and typewriting because "such courses have educational, practical, and cultural value and require as much intellectual effort as many other secondary-school subjects." Here are the exact words of some of them:

American University, Washington, D.C.: "They have practical value. Require intellectual power and judgment." This college allows two units in stenography, one unit in typewriting.

Gooding College, Wesleyan, Idaho: "We count the discipline derived from a study of these subjects equal to that of many academic subjects besides the practical work. These students send in better and neater notebooks."

Lombard College, Galesburg, Illinois: "These subjects give student preparatory training quite as valuable as a considerable number of high-school subjects which are recognized."

Wheaton College, Wheaton, Illinois: "If properly taught and done, it is worth-while work as preparation for college."

Luther College, Decorah, Iowa: "High schools usually accept these subjects toward graduation. They increase power and are useful in college later on."

University of Dubuque, Dubuque, Iowa: "We consider training in shorthand of equal value with training in some other subjects for which credit is allowed."

State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa: "We recognize the demand for these two things in the educational scheme. Students of education recognize the genuine educational value," etc.

Washburn College, Topeka, Kansas: "Training in such subjects is valuable to students and useful in preparation for college study."

Simmons University, Louisville, Kentucky: "Value in mind culture."

Manhattan College, New York City: "They have educational value."

Wake Forest College, Wake Forest, North Carolina: "We think typewriting tends to improve a student's English composition."

College after college could be quoted in the same strain. Many colleges merely stated that credit is granted but made no statement as to the reasons.

A very frequently recurring reason for the recognition of stenography and typewriting is the fact that these subjects are approved by the state board of

education or that a college gives credit because these subjects are recognized toward graduation by the first-class high schools.

To quote a few:

Missouri Wesleyan College, Cameron, Missouri: "These subjects are counted toward graduation in high school. They are helpful to students who are deprived of higher education."

Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York: "We allow two units in the Liberal Arts course and four units in the Bachelor of Arts course."

Oklahoma College for Women, Chickasha, Oklahoma: "Accepted and accredited by state department of high-school inspection."

University of Vermont, Burlington, Vermont: "Two units allowed in commercial subjects."

Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vermont: "In meeting the total requirements of fifteen units, we accept a maximum of five free choices."

Bethany College, Bethany, West Virginia: "First-grade high schools allow these subjects toward graduation."

University of Dallas, Dallas, Texas: "These subjects are accredited by the state department of education."

Many colleges stated frankly that they recognize these subjects only because they have to meet certain conditions presented in cases where stenography and typewriting are offered:

St. Vincent College, Beatty, Pennsylvania: "Some pupils change course from commercial to science; therefore, subjects must be credited."

Yankton College, Yankton, South Dakota: "Not approved but accepted in co-operation with other high schools and colleges."

Hollins College, Hollins, Virginia: "If student's certificate is strong, one unit is given for these two subjects."

Hampden-Sidney College, Hampden-Sidney, Virginia: "Students often need it to make up entrance credit. No value attached."

Union University, Jackson, Tennessee: "Only to be in harmony with other institutions of this section."

One hundred and sixteen colleges stated definitely that they do not recognize stenography or typewriting as college-entrance subjects. In the main, the reasons given are that the colleges in question are purely technical, such as engineering, military, or agricultural, or that these subjects do not prepare students for their particular work. However, here and there, such a college accords some credit, as, for instance, the Georgia School of Technology, which credits one-half unit in stenography and one-half unit in typewriting. We herewith quote some of the colleges which do not allow credit, and their reasons:

Agnes Scott College, Decatur, Georgia: "We offer only the B. A. degree, and no vocational work is credited."

Municipal University of Akron, Akron, Ohio: "Not the custom generally. Belongs to vocational training. Expensive equipment."

Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio: "Not valuable as preparation for Liberal Arts course."

The College of Engineering of Milwaukee allows credit for one-half unit of typewriting only because "it is used for writing reports on subjects such as electricity, chemistry, design, etc."

St. Michael's College, Winooski, Vermont: "Fifteen required units are taken up by other subjects necessary for college courses."

Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn, Brooklyn, New York: "Not regarded as educationally fundamental to an engineering curriculum."

Barnard College, New York City: "Not preparation for Liberal Arts course. Too technical."

Fordham University, New York City: "No special bearing on college work."

PRIZES AND THE IMPROVEMENT OF SCHOLARSHIP

School Topics, the official magazine of the public schools of Cleveland, Ohio, published in its issue of November 7 an article the implications of which are summarized in the title and subtitle: "Prizes Fail To Improve Scholarship. Good Teaching, Not Artificial Awards, Spurs Pupils to Their Best, Investigators Find." As the article deals with a topic of general interest, it is here quoted in full.

Artificial stimulation of scholarship through means of honor societies, prizes, and awards can be easily overdone, according to many educators who have responded to a letter sent out recently by H. A. Bathrick, formerly principal of the East Technical High School and now assistant superintendent of schools, and E. S. Kern, teacher at the East Technical High School.

In response to their request for a candid appraisal of devices for improving scholarship, they received some astonishingly frank replies from universities, colleges, and public-school systems.

H. E. Hawkes, dean of Columbia College, of Columbia University, answered:

"The most vital stimulus for good academic work that we have been able to find is the securing of absolutely first-class instructors who are able to stimulate and maintain intellectual interest. Everything comes down to this. Other stimuli, like honor societies and honor rolls, seem to me to depend entirely upon local conditions and to be secondary in their importance and value."

George Wheeler, assistant superintendent of the Philadelphia public schools, said:

"As far as our experience goes—and we have been watching the thing pretty carefully for many years—the usual stimuli of honor societies, awards of merit, honor rolls, etc., simply spur on those who need no spurring. I appreciate the fact that a certain amount of artificial stimulation is found throughout all of the activities of the world, and we have no right to expect our pupils in the

schools to act from higher motives than their elders do. Nevertheless, the matter of artificial stimuli is easily overdone.

"We school people laugh at the blue tickets and green tickets used by Sunday schools and similar organizations, and yet the things which we offer are substantially of the same nature.

"The effect of these devices upon the group of lower degree of ability is either negligible or objectionable. They know from the beginning they cannot win, and to see others repeatedly taken out for honors and special notice merely tends to emphasize their inferiority.

"We need to do less thinking about how to stimulate interest by artificial means and more thinking about arousing an interest on the part of the pupils which will cause them to make achievement its own reward."

B. G. Shackelford, director of school and community relations, St. Louis public schools, replied:

"In regard to the stimulation of scholarship in the St. Louis high schools, we have long felt that any stimulus that does not reach the entire group tends to the discouragement of a very considerable portion of the group. Artificial stimuli, for this reason, have been used rather sparingly. Our experience on this whole question of stimulation is that all artificial stimuli applied result in pushing those who do not need this incentive into an undesirable effort, while those who may and do need such stimulus are harmed rather than helped.

Personally, I believe that high ideals and a cheerful atmosphere will bring out the best and that in general artificial stimuli are a hindrance rather than a help."

Edwin L. Miller, assistant superintendent of the Detroit public schools, took the matter up with the high-school principals there and reported:

"I asked our high-school principals last Friday what they thought about schemes for stimulating scholarship. One of them suggested that it would be a good scheme to have the students take only the easy subjects. Another said that in his school they had had a scholarship cup but that this did not seem to excite the pupils as much as it did the teachers. Their opinion, on the whole, is that methods of artificial stimulation of enthusiasm for scholarship are really valueless, the only real and useful stimulus being highly gifted teachers."

From Arthur Gould, assistant superintendent in Los Angeles, came this reply:

"In my own opinion, the best stimulus to improve scholarship has been our program of equal ability grouping, which has made it possible, by reason of modified content in course-of-study material, for even the slowest children to work with some hope of success. We have, I believe, in many cases, removed from children the danger of forming the habit of failure. After all, as far as I can see, it is much more important that children should learn to succeed in what they undertake than to acquire certain grades in the accomplishment of certain fixed tasks in the school."

CO-OPERATIVE ADVERTISING

The following statement of a co-operative plan of advertising high-school basket-ball games was contributed by E. O. May, principal of the Robinson Township High School, Robinson, Illinois.

The five high schools in Crawford County, Illinois, are using a co-operative plan of advertising basket-ball games that is proving very popular this year. Window cards are printed each week showing the schedule of games to be played during the week by each team. The home games are printed in large type and the games away from home in smaller type. The cards are placed about town and left for the week.

The five schools—Oblong, Palestine, Hutsonville, Flat Rock, and Robinson—are all on state highways and within from twenty to thirty minutes of one another by automobile. There is much personal acquaintance among the pupils of the several schools and among the townspeople. Great friendly rivalry also exists. Often when the home team is playing some distance away, many "fans" wish to see a game but do not wish to travel as far as is necessary to see the home team. An examination of the week's schedule may show that one of the other teams in the county has an unusually attractive game at home. The result is that there is much attendance at games by pupils and townspeople from the towns of the county other than the one in which the game is being played.

The idea is carried even farther by Heath Brothers, confectioners, of Robinson, who print on a small folder the complete schedule of all five teams for the season. Copies of these schedules are sent to each of the five schools for distribution. They may be posted by pupils and other "fans" at home or in stores and offices for ready reference from time to time. This is, of course, a complimentary service by Heath Brothers.

The cost of printing the window cards is divided among the five schools in proportion to the number of cards used. From the standpoint of cost alone, the plan is very successful. The cost to each school is much less than would be the cost of similar advertising if each school advertised independently. If a school wishes to do some extra publicity work for a particular game, it may easily be done.

This idea of co-operative publicity was suggested by M. E. Minor, treasurer of student activities in the Robinson Township High School. One of the greatest values that seem to come from the plan is a closer, more cordial feeling on the part of the pupils and "fans" of the five schools. While they are assisting one another in a fine co-operative manner and visiting back and forth at the games, the bitter, antagonistic feeling that sometimes exists between competing schools largely disappears.

THE UNIQUE CHARACTER OF AMERICAN SECONDARY EDUCATION[1]

CHARLES H. JUDD
University of Chicago

A friend of mine who is the principal of an elementary school on the West Side of Chicago, near the stockyards, tells me that some years ago there came into his office a Bohemian who introduced himself in broken English as the father of one of the boys in the school. The father said that his son, who was in the eighth grade, was being encouraged by his teacher to enter high school. He wanted to know whether it was true that the boy could go to high school. The principal assured him that it was and added the comment that the boy was bright and was doing very well in his school work. Thinking that it might be necessary to persuade the father, the principal began to describe the advantages of a high-school education. The Bohemian, who knew only Old World ways, interrupted the principal by asking, "What will it cost me to have the boy go to high school?" "Nothing," was the reply. "Excuse me," said the Bohemian father, "I do not understand English very well." It required several repetitions to convince him that in America the opportunity of a higher education is open to every boy who finishes the eighth grade—and that without cost.

The counterpart of this incident recently appeared in press dispatches from France. Two statements which were published in American newspapers in October of this year may be quoted. The first is as follows:

M. Herriot, the French minister of education, has given notice of his intention to make education in the *lycées* free. The methods by which he intends to carry out this proposal will be submitted to the finance committee of the chamber. The adoption of this reform, which will involve credits estimated at 58,000,000 f., can only be carried out in successive stages. For this year several hundred thousand francs only will be asked in order to insure free secondary

[1] Delivered at Harvard University on December 14, 1927, as the Inglis Lecture in Secondary Education.—EDITOR.

education in the colleges where a fusion has already been effected with the higher primary education. M. Poincaré has given his assent to the financial measures involved in this proposal.

The second statement tells what French editorial writers said with regard to the proposal of the minister of education.

Minister of Education Edouard Herriot's proposal to make institutions of higher learning accessible to the poor as well as the rich by offering free tuition, as is done in most American state universities, caused strong protest in Conservative circles.

At present it takes a considerable sum to go through the universities. About the only poor students able to do it are those who win scholarships.

"It will ruin French culture and flood the universities with those who ought to be carpenters and day laborers, and give us a host of third-rate journalists, lawyers, doctors, and politicians," the Conservative papers *Le Temps* and *Journal des Débats* say.

Turning from France to England, we find ample evidence on which to base a contrast between conditions in America and in England. The London *Times Educational Supplement* of July 23, 1927, has a leading article dealing with the difficulties encountered by many pupils in securing a secondary education. Americans perhaps need to have their attention called explicitly to the fact that attendance on a secondary school in England is possible only when someone pays for the pupil's tuition. The following are the opening paragraphs of the *Times* article; they will be fully understood only when the facts regarding tuition requirements are kept in mind.

With the increased demand for, and provision of, secondary education, the number of young people is also increasing whose education or professional training is threatened by reason of lack of means. Only a few win scholarships substantial enough to insure the completion of their training, and schoolmasters and schoolmistresses are again and again called upon to suggest sources of help other than those based on purely competitive examinations for students who have got some way, and for whom it seems a pity not to go farther. Most of the general societies that exist for this purpose have already more applications than they can possibly meet, and there is often not very much hope for a candidate unless through some professional or local society whose resources may not be quite so strained or on which the applicant may for some reason have some priority of call.

All societies, however, consider cases on their merits; and the head of a school who has the interests of boys and girls at heart will seldom leave any stone unturned. Since the expenditure of these loan funds is practically all

productive expenditure, the results of which can be almost immediately measured in terms of hard work and happiness, they should appeal to all persons of good will with money to give or leave, and it is a pity that the fear of being overwhelmed by applications which they cannot meet should drive so many of the existing organizations into a semi-retirement where they are little heard of. The Charity Organization Society (296 Vauxhall Bridge-road) has access to many of them and catalogues them with other sources of help in its *Annual Charities Register and Digest.* The following particulars, however, have been for the most part obtained by personal investigation and by the courtesy of the secretaries of the various societies and funds.

Following these paragraphs is a full front page of the *Times Educational Supplement* listing sources of aid for worthy young people who want to attend secondary schools.

Another example which shows the contrast between European and American conditions is drawn from my own experience. Some years ago I was visiting schools in Hamburg. A German friend who knew that I was anxious to gain a full understanding of the German educational system took me to a private school which received boys who had not been allowed to go on in the *Gymnasium* because they had been adjudged to be failures in their courses. I talked with the teachers in this private school and with some of the boys. It appeared that most of the boys came from homes of the merchant class. The parents were able to pay for the schooling of their sons and had sent them to the *Gymnasium* in the hope that they might rise out of the social rank in which they were born into the professional and governing classes of society. The boys had failed and were cut off from advancement to higher ranks in society because the doors to professional study and social preferment are open only to those who pass through the *Gymnasium.* What interested me was the statement repeatedly made that these boys were competent enough intellectually but the teachers in the *Gymnasium* had deliberately excluded them from the opportunity of further study because the professions were overcrowded and it was not desired that the merchant class should break through the social defenses which surrounded aristocratic exclusiveness.

One more reference to happenings on the other side of the Atlantic and the point which I wish to make is, I think, clearly proved. Sweden recently adopted a new school code. This code substitutes

for the long-established educational system which gave to only a favored few the opportunity of securing a secondary education, a new system in which access to secondary education is offered to all who complete the work of the common school.

The cases which I have cited were not chosen with a view to emphasizing the well-known fact that American high schools are accessible to pupils from all levels of society. They were chosen with the purpose of emphasizing the fact that everywhere in the modern world there is an eager desire on the part of pupils and their parents for a share in the advantages of higher education. The German merchant class desires an education higher than that which is provided in the *Volksschule*. The French minister of education feels the pressure from the common people. England hears the voices of many who are now excluded from her secondary schools asking even in the name of charity for a privilege universally desired.

There are those who are critical of the American high school because its doors are open to pupils of all types. The critics of the American system write elaborate treatises in order to convince us that our program of free universal secondary education is a failure. For my part, I am convinced that the experiment which America is trying cannot be abandoned for the simple reason that human nature here and in every other country is eagerly seeking access to higher education. That the American high school is accessible to all classes in society is a result of the fact that the desires of the common people come more readily to expression under the conditions of American life than under the rigid conditions of older social orders. European countries, bound by the traditions of the past, are slowly beginning to demand for all the people what America has long provided. Even if our plan were to fail, the trend toward universal secondary education is so strong that other countries would carry on the undertaking.

I do not understand how anyone who studies the obvious trends in the world's educational systems can suggest that the United States turn backward. It is the duty of our people to examine critically the results of the experiment of developing secondary education in which this country is engaged, but we should never be misled by cynical critics into thinking that we are behind Europe. The day will certainly come when the French *lycée* will be free and when Ger-

many will have, as Sweden now has, that which has been discussed long and vigorously, a high school open to all who complete the elementary curriculum. Those in Germany who look forward to this broader educational opportunity call the school for which they hope the *Einheitsschule*. In England they have a picturesque name for the school system toward which they are moving. Some day England will arrive at the goal for which the common people are striving and will have its "end-on" school. Then boys and girls from the board school will not depend on charity for the right to pass from the common school into higher institutions.

When I speak of the American high school as an experiment, I do not mean at all to imply that it is a questionable or temporary undertaking. Every great social movement is an experiment in human adaptation. There is certainly no reason for discouragement in the fact that the lines along which we have been innovating are not altogether clear. We, like every generation before us, are experimenting with life, and the degree of perfection which we attain will depend quite as much on our courage to make progressive changes as on our critical insight with regard to our defects. If we need to renew our courage, we have only to look about us and to note that the ideal toward which we are striving is beginning to be accepted by nations that are much less advanced than are we in experimentation with secondary education.

The secondary schools of the world are outgrowths of the urge for higher things; they are also in a peculiar sense reflections of the social and economic conditions in the countries in which they exist. Elementary schools are much alike in all civilized countries. The secondary schools and the universities of a nation are the institutions which give distinctive character to its educational system. We can understand secondary schools only when we understand the social system of which they are a part.

The conditions of life in Europe are so thoroughly systematized that the individual has little or no escape from the classifications imposed on him by inheritance. A boy born in the peasant class in any of the European countries will continue to be a peasant all his days. The artisan's son expects to enter upon some trade closely related to that which his father follows. Much of the efficiency of Europeans is due to the fact that whole families carry on from generation to

generation the same industrial operations and hand down from father to son the wisdom of experience. At the levels above the peasant and artisan classes, the son of professional or aristocratic parents is obligated by social expectation to maintain the traditions of his family and class.

In contrast with all this is the outlook on life of an American youth. It is not at all the uniform expectation in the United States that a boy will do what his father did before him or that a girl will imitate her mother. If there is one characteristic more conspicuous than another in an American, it is his determination to seek the adventure of a career which has never been followed by any of his forebears. The possibility of migration to new parts of the country, the rapid development of new industries, the opening up of a host of new professions, have created on this continent a movement in our population and a variety of experiments in personal adaptation which have no parallel in the older civilizations.

It is quite unthinkable that American schools should develop their programs of instruction uninfluenced by the conditions which have been described. Uncertainty as to a pupil's future creates a unique problem. It is very easy to prescribe a curriculum for a boy who is stamped by heredity with an indelible mark, as is the European boy. It is a very different matter to arrange courses of study for a boy who may be a plumber or who may equally well be a legislator.

The American high school has been organized with a view to providing for pupils who do not expect to follow in the footsteps of their fathers. It has as one of its chief characteristics a flexibility which no other secondary school in the world exhibits.

If one is critical of the unsettled conditions in American life, one is likely to view the extreme flexibility of our schools with a feeling of dismay if not with utter despair. One may even advocate, as some recent writers have done, a reversion to the substantial and rigid organization of European schools. There is something consoling about the immobile curriculum and the ancient customs of European institutions. One cannot but admire the secondary schools of England, where gentlemen have lived together for centuries. One must respect the *Gymnasien* of Germany, which stand as the narrow gate-

ways to those great scientific centers, the German universities. One is justified in being envious of the French *lycées*, where perfect style is cultivated and logic is transmitted. It is little wonder that many who are disturbed by the coming and going in our western civilization should look on European education as so much more compact than anything which we have that they would fain induce us to adopt the *Gymnasium* and the *lycée* as models on which to pattern our future.

It has come to be quite the custom for critics of American education to make hasty excursions to Europe, sometimes in person, sometimes in imagination, and to come back with descriptions of what ought to be done in America. I never read these exhortations to be like Europe without thinking of the fundamental differences in the life of the two continents which make real imitation utterly impossible. Europe has social castes. European education grew from above downward. European secondary schools were in the past and are in very large measure today the homes of aristocracy, accessible only to the élite. American education grew from below upward. The high school of this country is a part of the common-school system, and into it come great groups of young people who have no definite ideas as to the callings which they will follow in later life. Much less do these young people know what stations in society they are ultimately to occupy.

American ingenuity is heavily taxed to meet the demand for an educational device which is at once efficient and sufficiently flexible to provide for the training of the unsettled youth of this country. Two experiments have been launched to meet the demand for flexibility. One is the cosmopolitan high school. The other is the elective system.

The cosmopolitan high school is an effort to concentrate under one roof instruction in all the lines which may under any conditions be required for the preparation of secondary-school pupils for life. The special academic school or the special trade school does not provide the individual pupil with a ready opportunity for a broad training, as does the school in which all subjects are administered as parts of a single cosmopolitan plan.

The elective system is an administrative device for allowing the

individual pupil the largest possible liberty to come in contact with as many and as diverse phases of experience as the school can provide.

I am not concerned at the moment either to condemn or to defend the cosmopolitan high school or the elective system. I am merely trying to indicate why we have undertaken these unique experiments in America. Schoolmasters did not deliberately decide that they would abandon the narrow, fixed curriculum which was sanctioned by tradition. They were compelled by the conditions of life around them to do something other than that which was done in this country as recently as a generation ago and is now done in countries where the social situation is less dynamic than it is in America.

The evolution of the cosmopolitan high school is clearly illustrated in the experience of Cleveland, Ohio. The original secondary schools of that city were of the traditional academic type, devoted to the preparation of pupils for college and administering a classical-mathematical curriculum. As the population of the city increased through the development of industries, the demand for a new type of curriculum began to express itself. This demand took an extreme form as radical demands often do. Parents and pupils asked for courses as different as possible from those given in the traditional academic school. Cleveland organized a technical high school in response to this demand. It was the expectation of those who secured the establishment of this new school that it would give a practical education to boys who were going to become workers in the trades. Large numbers of pupils entered the new technical high school. What did they and their parents then demand? Nothing less than an all-inclusive education. The outcome of this experiment was, and is, that the technical high school of Cleveland is a cosmopolitan high school, responsive in a very high degree to the demand for educational opportunities in many lines. The technical school offers, in fact, almost all the advantages offered by the academic school and at the same time provides many elaborate courses in shopwork and related subjects which are unknown in the older school. What happened in Cleveland has been happening in many of the school systems in the country.

I referred to the cosmopolitan high school as an experiment.

There are many influences which surround this experiment and act as checks to prevent it from becoming unmanageable. In the first place, a cosmopolitan high school is expensive. Costs mount in proportion as the program of instruction expands. In the second place, there is a kind of competition among the subjects of instruction which prevents unproductive studies from becoming permanent factors in the curriculum. In the third place, new subjects can be introduced only when teachers can be found who are competent to teach them, and teachers do not train themselves in any large numbers for subjects that are without justification.

It is difficult to sympathize with the terror which seems to possess some of the critics of the high school who look for its dissolution because of the variety of subjects of instruction which it provides. We live in an age when an effort is being made to intellectualize every kind of undertaking. What used to be bookkeeping has expanded under the conditions of modern business into the profession of accounting. Various forms of engineering have appeared in the list of professions because each requires long and arduous preparation as a prerequisite of success. Industry is in the hands of trained engineers. We might go on citing examples which show that high grades of intelligence and superior training are required in a hundred positions in society where formerly the professions were only three in number. How can anyone contemplate this expansion of intellectual interests in society without recognizing that the schools also must expand? The experiment of developing an enriched curriculum cannot, of course, be brought to complete success in a day, but the experiment must go forward. In some way or other the breadth of training must correspond to legitimate modern demands.

I dare say that, if all those who object to the American plan of education were heard, the number who find the cosmopolitan high school undesirable would be less than the number of those who think of the elective system as the climax of pedagogical iniquity.

A recent critic of American education has selected the combinations of courses for graduation from high school and college as the target for his most caustic ridicule. I am about to quote what he says, but before I do so I take the liberty of directing attention to the fact that there is a lack of coherence in this critic's writing. He

starts out to describe the curriculum but becomes confused in his ideas and discusses faulty teaching and various other matters which have very little to do with the sequence of courses, that is, with the curriculum.

I quote at length from Bulletin Number Twenty of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, entitled, *The Quality of the Educational Process in the United States and in Europe*. In this bulletin the author, William S. Learned, writes as follows:

> The curriculum is a rope of sand, without texture or organization. Effective education through related ideas is thereby sacrificed to the mere registering of information. This fact will be made clearer later by comparison with genuine curricula. Convinced that knowledge is power, we have assumed that presenting information is identical with conferring knowledge, and have hastened to make broad this easy and royal road to an educated democracy. Information on almost any subject can easily be formulated into convenient units. And it is possible for a mind even of very limited powers, if socially docile, and inspired by filial duty, personal pride, commercial advantage, or any one of a dozen other extraneous motives, to take in and give out this information in recognizable word or paraphrase without seriously knowing or caring what it is all about. This is positively all that the school, and usually the college, requires, and of this it asks but a fraction—60 per cent. For fear of evaporation the process is checked up at once—daily recitation, written review, monthly test, and term examination. These concluded, responsibility ceases, and "credit" is recorded, of which no future misstep, even though it discloses total ignorance, can ever deprive the pupil.
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> Zeal for our broad, trunk-line school, where every child of democracy may come and choose the information that most attracts him, has blinded us to the fact that "power" disappears under such a régime. The knowledge that is power presupposes a mind actively at work and bent on the process of self-education. Such a mind requires the meanings and relations of its information, and finds little advancement in minute and disconnected masses of fact that must, from the nature of our system, stand neatly alone. Instead of developing an agency to attend, supply, and encourage a pupil who is using his own mind, we have done our best to devise a vehicle that will *carry* the minds of as many as choose to get on board. To graduate from either high school or college today may hardly be rated as, of itself, an intellectual achievement. It is at best a moderately worthy exhibition of certain moral qualities [pp. 5–6].

The writer of the foregoing paragraphs can hardly find words in which to express his admiration of the coherence which he says is characteristic of all European schools. He would have America repent and go back to the path of rectitude indicated by the example of Europe.

Before quoting from Mr. Learned's bulletin, I pointed out that there is a difference between a poor curriculum and the kind of inefficient teaching which he seems to regard as inevitable in schools organized as are American schools. If it were true that our schools are guilty of every sin that Mr. Learned catalogues, it would not follow that we ought to go back to the European curriculum, and it would not follow that a reversion would save our educational lives. There have not been lacking in the history of schools cases in which Caesar has been badly taught and in which geometry has been treated by inferior teachers as a collection of isolated propositions. On the other hand, we have all seen, I am sure, the most stimulating instruction given to young minds by a teacher of biology or some other subject who is thoroughly familiar with his field. Such a teacher often produces a profound impression even though he has the class under his supervision for only a single semester. There is a coherence that results from daily interest in a line of thinking which opens up a new world of thought. This is totally different from the coherence which results from repetitious drill. A curriculum cannot be a "rope of sand" if it is administered by teachers whose thinking is logical and consecutive.

It is, I am sure, hardly worth the time of this company to listen at any length to an exchange of opinions between two observers of European teaching who are in utter disagreement. I cannot refrain, however, from making a record of the fact that I have seen in German *Gymnasien* teaching as poor as any I ever witnessed. A few years ago, as a representative of the United States Bureau of Education, I had an unusual opportunity to visit classes in Germany which are not ordinarily open to visitors. Anyone who makes sweeping and unqualified statements about the universal excellence of German teaching may find acceptance as a competent witness among large groups of my countrymen, but he will have to be satisfied with my rejection of his testimony, however little that rejection may distress him. I visited some of the classes which were not the first choices of the principals, and I arrived at the conclusion that superficial students of the German system are not invited into classes where the German system is encountering difficulties.

I am prepared, as a result of personal observation, to bear similar testimony with regard to English schools. I shall have to plead

guilty to personal ignorance concerning the French *lycées*. I have read, however, that there has been not a little effort in recent years to reform the curriculum of the *lycées*. Apparently, the French people are not as certain as are some of their American visitors of the unqualified excellence of what is being done in their secondary schools. I am disposed to believe that the writer who reviewed Mr. Learned's book in the London *Times Educational Supplement* was right when he said that Mr. Learned had "deliberately attempted to contrast American education at its worst with European education at its best."

Returning to the main topic, we must keep vividly in mind the principle that no solution of our American problem will ever be reached by retracing our steps. The world has never before seen an experiment in the evolution of a flexible, elective secondary-school program. No other country has ever attempted on such a scale as has the United States to raise the level of commercial and industrial undertakings by supplying a universal higher education. Vituperation of the American program is as useless as vilification of the sunrise. If anyone can tell us how to make the American secondary school more flexible, he will be recognized as a leader. Any author who exhorts us to stop in the midst of our experiment and put the high school into a strait-jacket has chosen his own place among the writers of curious documents, valuable only as additions to the collections of antiquarians.

I would not have you misinterpret my plea for flexibility as an abandonment of the hope for coherence. There is a coherence which results from holding rigidly to a restricted range of ideas. The fact that a pupil is taught nationalistic history yesterday, today, and tomorrow may leave on his mind the impression that nationalistic history is highly important—more important, indeed, than anything else in the field of history. Such a repetitious program, which, by the way, is to be found in every European school, may serve to keep the thinking of pupils rotating about the same problems, may foster a certain type of conviction about one's own country and about its boundaries and enemies, and may supply coherence without advantage and continuity without intellectual illumination. He who advocates coherence through repetition is an unsafe guide.

There is evidence that our flexible American program is evolving a new thing, namely, a coherence in school studies which results not from dull repetition but from an apprehension of the fact that genuine learning aids the individual to adapt himself to his social obligations.

Let me illustrate what I mean by reference to a particular case. I know the record of a boy who entered the high school with the idea that ultimately he would follow some commercial pursuit. He elected in his freshman year the commercial courses which were offered in arithmetic and geography. Through these studies he became interested in the broader principles which govern industrial and commercial relations. He was led to study some of the sciences during his second year. Stimulated by his contacts with these fields of knowledge, he began to think of going to college. Finding that it is conventional to lay emphasis on literary and mathematical courses in preparation for college, he devoted the last two years of the four which he spent in high school to the study of foreign languages and mathematics. Anyone who looks at the record of this boy will note at once that he wandered about among the offerings of the high school. Anyone interested primarily in statistics who finds a hundred records of pupils shifting from commerce to science and from science to the classics probably can justify his criticism of American education at least far enough to satisfy those who prefer to set up a social system where there are no lines of migration from business to intellectual pursuits. Anyone, on the other hand, who is interested in intellectual awakenings, who finds the finest type of coherence in genuine mental development rather than in tabulated records can hardly fail to recognize in the progress of the boy whom I have described an exhibition of the American type of coherence as contrasted with the European type.

It is not argued here that every American pupil achieves in his intellectual life that coherence which makes all kinds of knowledge part of a well-integrated development, but it is argued that the experiment of arousing American youth is under way in a form that is unique and far too successful to be abandoned.

Even those who demand the type of continuity which results from the pursuit of similar subjects year after year will find not a

little in the programs of American schools which shows that under proper conditions secondary-school curriculums of individual pupils are consecutive in every sense of the word. One needs only to read the requirements for graduation prescribed by the state board of education in such a state as California to realize that the statements of the critics of American high schools about the lack of sequential courses are far from true. It is a fact that in the great majority of high schools the administrators can be trusted to interest themselves intelligently in the development of pupils, and they are near enough to the individual cases to be more competent in selecting courses for pupils than are those who deal with the high school at long range and with no regard for the social conditions in the midst of which this institution does its work.

I find my own thinking greatly stimulated not only by the breadth of the American curriculum but also and especially by certain new courses which are being tried in a number of American high schools. Let us consider briefly a typical example. In Rochester, New York; Detroit, Michigan; Richmond, Indiana; Los Angeles, California; and other cities teachers of language have seen the possibility of introducing pupils to the romantic field of comparative philology by means of a general-language course. Instead of expecting young people to spend their time gleaning a few ideas about the cultures of antiquity through the intensive study of a limited number of pages of a single author, these teachers of language have sought out striking examples of the relation between human thought and human modes of expressing thought. They are introducing pupils to new and highly productive ideas about the way in which the human mind has evolved. They are making pupils conscious of the beauty and simplicity of the English language. In short, they are teaching more about language in a semester than pupils could discover in a lifetime by the methods of drill followed in schools which have never realized the possibility of making school work coherent by making it interesting and informing.

Those of us who are optimistic about the American attempt to develop the productive type of teaching which is necessary if the elective system is to succeed cannot listen with any patience to the plea for a curriculum which includes four years of Latin because,

forsooth, Cicero has traditionally followed Caesar, and Vergil has brought up the rear of the procession. There is a certain progression from Latin to Latin in such a sequence, it is true, but there is no guaranty that this progression will result in enthusiasm for the rational solution of the pupils' intellectual problems. It is quite as thinkable that a boy will become intellectually mature from the study of civics and economics, and it is certainly not outside the probabilities that civics and economics will hold his attention more firmly than will the poetry of Vergil.

Whether one is optimistic or pessimistic about the American program of secondary education, that program is here, and there is not the slightest indication that it is going to revert to the European form of education. Quite the contrary. The expansion of the American program and its flexibility are being imitated in Europe. There is an interest in other countries in the American type of education that is reflected in official reports and incidental discussions. There is a hope among the citizens of every other land that some day higher education may be both open to their children, as it is to the children on this continent, and appropriate to the needs of each child.

Some years ago I went to a meeting of a labor union in an English city. The purpose of the meeting was the announcement of some courses which had been provided by the city board of education for adults. I listened with interest to the talks given by the leaders of the union. One of them, inspired perhaps by the presence of an American, used a phrase which I shall not forget. He commented on the increasing educational advantages that were being provided for the common people of England. Using a phrase coined by Matthew Arnold, he expressed his gratification that an increasing number of the children of the common people could enjoy the advantages of a secondary education because they were able to scale the "educational ladder." He paused on the words "educational ladder" and said, "I hope the time will come when we shall have in England not an educational ladder but an educational stairway, such as they have in the United States."

Up to this point I have attempted to show that the American high school is characterized by accessibility and flexibility. Let us turn now to a third characteristic. The American high school has

one quality that even its most unfriendly critics recognize as unique —it has huge size. I do not refer to individual schools although some of these rival in size universities of the first rank. I refer, rather, to the high-school system as a whole. I shall not review here the statistics of the pupil population of secondary schools. The matter of size is relevant to our present discussion because size inevitably results in certain consequences which we must understand if we are to have a full comprehension of the experiment in which we are engaged.

The teaching staff of any educational institution is its most essential item of equipment. Providing suitable teachers for American high schools is a task so colossal that our civilization is staggered in its efforts to meet the demand. There are some who comment adversely on the training of the teachers in the high schools and use phrases which seem to indicate that the schools are in some sense guilty of deliberate neglect. The fact is that the schools are increasing so rapidly in the number of pupils enrolled that the generation which has completed its education is not able to supply teachers in adequate numbers. In 1925 there were 155,000 teachers in the public secondary schools of the United States. This is more by 30,000 than the total number of graduates of the colleges of the country in a year. When one thinks of the other occupations and professions which college graduates enter, one realizes the difficulty of recruiting the teaching staffs of the high schools even if nothing more were demanded than graduation from college.

The problem which confronts the country can be described in another way. If every accredited high school and every college in the United States had a single well-trained mathematician on its staff, there would be somewhat more than twenty thousand well-trained mathematicians in the United States. When one thinks of the mathematicians who are needed in the industries and in commerce and estimates this number as perhaps equal to the number required by the schools, one begins to realize that civilization itself is subjected to the severest test. Are there forty thousand persons in a generation who are sufficiently interested in mathematics and sufficiently competent in this specialty to provide what the country needs?

Our ability or inability to provide competent teachers will determine the success or failure of the American experiment of universal secondary education. We may be able to tolerate for a time partly trained teachers. We have developed certain devices in this country which very ingeniously cover up some of our deficiencies. We put textbooks into the hands of teachers and pupils and depend on these to supply a very large share of the method as well as the content of class exercises. Some years ago H. G. Wells made the comment that the devices for making good teachers out of mediocre individuals will have to be multiplied. There are so few good teachers, he pointed out, that the genius of these few must be conserved in some fashion and must be made available to pupils who cannot enjoy personal contact with them. He recommended that the best physics teachers give demonstrations before motion-picture cameras and that the photographs thus secured be used in classrooms presided over by those who are less competent. He would use phonographs and printed materials in the fields in which motion pictures cannot serve the purpose.

I have no simple formula to suggest by which the need for an adequate supply of highly competent high-school teachers can be met. I am quite sure of one fact. There is no justification for accusing the schools of neglect. The schools are now held in check by political and financial influences which render it well-nigh impossible for them to carry the load which the ambitions of pupils and parents impose upon them. Many an administrative officer who is charged with the conduct of a secondary school would gladly devote his energy to securing teachers of higher grade than his present resources will permit, but he is confronted with the task of keeping the taxpayers who support his institution sufficiently satisfied so that they will not reduce his budget. Even if the budgetary difficulty were removed, the human problem remains. Is the present generation competent to provide for the complete training of the next?

I do not belong to the group of students of school administration who believe that the problem of supplying teachers is primarily a financial problem. Like all members of the profession, I am glad to see the salaries of teachers increased, but I am persuaded that the supply of high-grade teachers will always be limited. For my own

part, I am willing to see our educational procedures modified so as to bring more pupils in contact with those who are most efficient in inspiring pupils to study. I consider the investigations which are being made with regard to the possibility of materially increasing the sizes of classes as among the most promising lines of inquiry now being pursued in our educational system.

Furthermore, I believe we shall have to depend increasingly on independent work on the part of pupils. In short, the conservation of instructional genius seems to me to be one of the most urgent necessities of our times. On the negative side, it cannot be too emphatically pointed out that curtailment of educational opportunity by elimination of pupils is certainly not the formula that should be adopted. If there are too few well-trained teachers now, it is a suicidal policy to limit the pupil population in the hope of keeping the demand down to the inadequate supply. A policy of expansion rather than a policy of repression must be devised.

The sheer magnitude of the secondary-school enterprise in this country has not only brought us face to face with the grave problem of providing a suitable staff but has also raised the question of the possibility of material support. How is the country to house all the pupils? How is space to be secured, especially in the congested sections of cities? How are laboratories and gymnasiums to be provided? I remember a conversation which I had some years ago with an English educator who was fully informed about American conditions. I refer to Sir Michael Sadler. He had been good enough to help me become acquainted with the flourishing secondary and higher municipal institutions of Leeds. I asked him why English cities did not make secondary schools free, for I had observed unbounded enthusiasm for the new municipal secondary schools. "We cannot afford it," he replied. Then he added, "You cannot afford what you are doing either, but you do not know it yet." I hope that Sir Michael is wrong. I am confident that he is, but I am quite sure that, if the American public has to maintain a secondary-school system larger than the present system, there will have to be a strict and convincing accounting by those who are in charge of the experiment.

From the consideration of the size of the high school, I turn to comment on what, for want of a better term, I shall designate as "pupil spirit." There is a kind of flippancy in the American youth

which is very trying to some of our intellectuals. American young people seem to take the high school for granted and think of it as one of Nature's free gifts. The ordinary boy or girl is wholly unaware of the fact that the high school is one of the most expensive and most daring social experiments of our day. There is a very different attitude among the pupils in European secondary schools. In those schools it is recognized as a privilege to attend. No German boy ever treats lightly his membership in a *Gymnasium*. The adverse judgment of three instructors excludes a boy from that institution, and adverse judgments are rendered in such numbers that the pupil mortality is very high. When a boy is excluded from the *Gymnasium*, he understands that the avenues of social preferment are closed to him.

Here again I draw the contrast not for the purpose of advocating imitation but for the purpose of throwing light on our experiment. It would be altogether disadvantageous to increase the ratio of pupil mortality in American schools as a means of convincing boys and girls that the opportunity to gain a high-school education is a privilege to be highly prized. There must be some American way of providing a substitute for the tension which pervades the European secondary schools. There must be some way to secure the cooperation of the pupils themselves in developing in this country an attitude of regard for intellectual life which shall be more explicit and more general than is the present attitude. There is vaguely in the minds of all Americans a respect for education. That is the reason why parents make sacrifices and pupils flock into the schools. This vague notion needs to be cultivated and made into a vivid, conscious recognition of the meaning of what is going on in the unique high schools of the United States.

I advocate direct instruction in the meaning and value of American opportunities. I do this the more earnestly because I believe that the next generation is certain to go farther than we have gone in developing educational opportunities for all classes of people. I am sure that the proper evolution of the high school as a public institution requires a thoughtful consideration of the characteristics of American life, and I am driven to the conclusion that such thoughtful consideration has, up to this time, been less common than it should be. If this were the proper time and place, that statement

could, I think, be expanded, and it could be shown that there is need of instruction in order to secure a general understanding of American institutions other than the schools. I am advocating the injection into the school curriculum of a course or series of courses intended to make young people aware of the peculiarities of American life. I should be willing to give a hearing in such a course to reports on European institutions if only those reports could be made somewhat more accurate than are the writings regarding European schools to which I have had occasion to refer. Without attempting to dictate in full the content or method of a course in American institutions, I advocate its introduction into the curriculum with all the emphasis that I can command.

The statement just made leads to a discussion of a final fact with regard to the American high school which must always be kept in mind by anyone who attempts to understand this institution. The high school, in common with all educational institutions in this country, is controlled by the people of the locality in which it is situated. Local control of the high school is more complete than is local control of the elementary school or college. Elementary schools have for some decades past been increasingly brought under the guidance of state departments of public instruction, and American colleges are governed by trustees who are usually chosen from a relatively wide area. The high schools are supervised comparatively little by state departments, and even the superintendent of public schools in most municipalities is timid about attempting to direct the program of secondary education.

Local control of the secondary schools is one of the most striking characteristics of our American system. In Germany, while the states have jurisdiction over the lower schools, the federal authorities control the *Gymnasien*. In France central control of the *lycées* is like the German control of the *Gymnasien*—absolute. In England there is a degree of local autonomy, but central control operates to an extent unknown in this country. In the countries where central control exists, it is readily possible by the exercise of power to produce conformity to certain fixed standards. It is possible to prevent the existence of certain deficiencies which arise in America, where the ambition of communities outruns their intelligence. Fixity and uni-

formity have been very generally achieved in European secondary schools. The opposite is true in the United States. One can find in this country every possible kind of high school. Anyone who tries to make a general statement regarding American high schools immediately finds that there are more exceptions to his statement than there are cases of agreement with his description. There is no such institution as a typical American high school.

During the past three decades there have arisen in the various sections of the United States voluntary organizations in the councils of which representatives of the secondary schools and colleges of the region meet to discuss ways and means of improving the schools. These organizations are guided by standards which they have adopted. There is no governmental dictation and no dogmatic insistence on standards which have artificial and unchallengeable authority. The type of standardization which is effected through voluntary cooperation is much more in keeping with American habits of thought than would be any type derived from governmental authority.

It is one of the finest virtues of the American educational system that, while it is free to develop according to the needs of each locality, it is impelled by its own devotion to the rational solution of problems to cultivate as its guide a body of scientifically established principles. Local control, which seems at first sight to be a loose and unpromising method of guiding education, has made so manifest the need of educational science that America has become in a unique sense the home of this science. However extravagant the praise heaped on Old World institutions by writers who would have us imitate Europe, there has never been any possibility of urging America to adopt European methods of control. There has never been a writer bold enough to attempt the fiction that Europe has a science of education.

Unfortunately, the science of education cannot be reported as in full control of American schools. In a democracy we are constantly reminded of the fact that there are forces other than reason which operate in educational systems to determine policies and practices. It would be gratifying at times if some of our prostrate municipalities could confess their intellectual bankruptcy and could go into the hands of almost any receiver who would accept the task of bringing

them back to sane modes of living and efficient methods of conducting their schools. This easy method of meeting the obligations of democracy is, however, out of the question. For better or for worse, we have local control. Some day we shall learn how to use the power which is in our hands, and we shall have a school system that is adapted to our needs because it has been developed in the closest relation to these needs. At the same time our system will not be as provincial as it is now because educational science has devised a terminology which makes it possible for local systems to communicate with one another and because there are exact methods of measurement which make it possible to institute revealing comparisons of the effectiveness of the educational devices that originate in widely separated systems.

The history of the American school system is a history of gradual accumulation of wisdom and of gradual perfection of organization. We certainly have defects which must be cured, but there is only one way to cure these defects, that is, by pushing forward along the lines which have been determined by our own unique evolution.

As I bring my tribute of respect to Alexander Inglis, I deem it fitting to seek reinforcement of what I have said by appeal to his attitude and to his writings. He always sought by the most searching inquiry to understand the educational situations with which he dealt. He was never guilty of false portrayal for the sake of literary effect or because of lack of careful inquiry. He first surveyed the field with diligence and with all the paraphernalia of the science of education, to which he was a large contributor. Having discovered the facts, he had the courage to suggest new experiments. I recall how he responded to the invitation of one of our middle western states to give assistance in the construction of a high-school curriculum for the semirural districts. It was his spirit of fearless attack on new problems which made him a leader among us.

In the course of my preparation of this paper, I read once more his masterly discussion of American secondary education. If I were not an optimist in my own right, I am very sure I should be an optimist by contagion. Professor Inglis' book is no weak, carping criticism, no false caricature; it is the work of a writer who knew the virtues of the unique institution which has been erected within our American educational system. To be sure, he also recognized clearly

the problems which the school must solve in the future. There is in his writing no evasion of these problems, no platitudinous reference to what we might be if we were something else. There is a straightforward wholesome discussion, which has helped a generation to see more clearly and to act more wisely.

I think it is fair to classify our former colleague as an expansionist. He did not at any point propose to abandon the experiment of universal secondary education. He did not advocate the abandonment of the elective system. He did not favor a contraction of the curriculum. On the contrary, he was strong in his appeals for enlargement of opportunity and for adjustment to the needs of the individual. He was a contributor to educational science through the systematic measurement of results.

I am content to follow the path that he took. I believe in a system of secondary education which has universal accessibility and maximum flexibility. I believe that we should put forth in this country all the energy we can command in the effort to supply the oncoming generation with the most stimulating ideas that we can offer. I believe that this duty will be most fully discharged by enriching the curriculum. I do not believe that the highest form of training is secured through mere sequential drill. I believe that it is possible to stimulate the minds of pupils to independent thinking and that such thinking is the highest achievement of an educational institution. I believe in local control guided by science. Above all, I believe in giving the people of this country a clear idea of the virtues and advantages of our educational system. I believe that a discussion of American problems can be carried on in such a way that the young people in the schools will have a true idea of their privileges and opportunities and the public will be willing to support adequately the experiment of universal secondary education.

In this faith, I am confident that it is the duty of all who are aware of the magnitude and importance of this enterprise to turn away from trivial criticism and from speculation as to possible abandonment of the present type of organization and to use all the energy that is available in bringing into the present system the most highly trained leaders that can be provided.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AND SCHOLARSHIP

WILLIAM A. WETZEL
Senior High School, Trenton, New Jersey

Every high-school principal knows that the chief reason why pupils are irregular in their attendance at school is that they do not realize the importance of a good attendance record and that in this respect they generally reflect the attitude of the home as well.

The suspicion soon begins to grow in the mind of anyone who daily checks attendance records that lack of the will to be present at school goes hand in hand with lack of the will to do the work of the school. The poor work of irregular pupils, therefore, is due not only to the fact that these pupils are not in school to receive the instruction of the teachers but also to the fact that school work is not of vital interest to them.

To the extent that this is true, irregular attendance is a symptom rather than a cause, and the cure lies back of any direct urge which the school may provide in the way of petty penalties to improve the attendance record.

The classroom teacher frequently assumes a clerical attitude toward the problem of irregular attendance. This is not entirely her fault. The office supplies absence and tardy forms and instructs the teachers not to admit irregular pupils until they have presented themselves at the office. Naturally, under these circumstances the teacher assumes that she has done her full duty when she has reported each case to the office and has demanded the proper voucher before re-admitting the pupil.

So far as the school can effect a cure for irregular attendance, the cure seems to lie in the classroom, not in the principal's office. The desire to be present at school is likely to grow out of the desire to do the school work, and the best agent to create this desire is the classroom teacher.

Just as irregular attendance and poor work go hand in hand, so do regular attendance and good work attend each other. The desire to have in the principal's office some data which might help pupils ir-

regular in attendance to assume a different attitude toward attendance impelled the brief study here reported.

In the Senior High School, Trenton, New Jersey, every pupil has a scholastic-ability index. This index functions in many ways, of which the pupil himself is thoroughly informed. The school also has a scale of average academic achievements, distributed according to ability indexes. Each pupil judges himself not only by the absolute value of his academic rating but also relatively by the worth of the academic ratings of the other pupils who have the same ability index. In addition to his academic rating, each pupil receives an efficiency rating, which is high, medium, or low according as his achievement is high, medium, or low as compared with the achievements of the other pupils; that is, the efficiency rating of the pupil is determined by the ratio between his actual accomplishment and the average accomplishment of all the pupils in the school at his ability level. The pupils think readily in terms of these units.

With these data at hand, it is possible to trace the relation between regular attendance and school efficiency. There were in this school last year 103 pupils who were neither absent nor tardy during the entire year. There were also 34 pupils who were absent or tardy or both ten or more times during the year. Neither group was confined largely to any particular ability level.

Table I makes possible a comparison of the academic achievements of both these groups with the achievements of the entire school. This table shows that at every ability level the pupils with perfect-attendance records not only led the pupils irregular in attendance but led the entire school, in many cases by a whole point. At ability level 50–54.5 the average rating of the school was just below 1, which indicates a D rating, the lowest passing rating. At this ability level the pupils with perfect-attendance records ranked just below 2, which indicates a C rating. Similar differences are shown at the other ability levels.

The pupils with poor attendance records were below the average achievement of the school at almost every ability level. The difference is not as marked in every case as in the records of the pupils with perfect attendance. The irregularities shown in the table are due to the small number of cases in some of the groups, but the general tendency of the records is clear.

The writer does not venture to say how much of the difference is due directly to the difference in the amount of instruction received in the classroom and how much is due to the difference in the will to be present and to do the work of the school. Undoubtedly, both factors are present. It is true, however, that neither the school nor the pupil can control unavoidable absences, while both can influence the pupil's attitude. When the pupil has the will to be present be-

TABLE I

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT INDEXES

Ability Level	Entire School	Pupils neither Absent nor Tardy	Pupils Absent or Tardy Ten or More Times
0– 49.5	.85	1.50	.....
50– 54.5	.96	1.88	.....
55– 59.5	1.07	.....	.....
60– 64.5	1.19	2.05	1.25
65– 69.5	1.31	2.13	.50
70– 74.5	1.42	2.04	.70
75– 79.5	1.54	2.38	.60
80– 84.5	1.65	2.40	1.25
85– 89.5	1.77	2.50	1.31
90– 94.5	1.88	2.97	1.38
95– 99.5	2.00	2.39	2.25
100–104.5	2.11	2.72	1.40
105–109.5	2.22	3.14	1.25
110–114.5	2.33	2.35	2.14
115–119.5	2.44	3.14	2.00
120–124.5	2.55	3.08	2.50
125–129.5	2.66	3.80	.....
130 and over	2.88	4.00	.75

cause he has the will to do the work, his absences and tardinesses will be reduced to the minimum, which in most cases will be zero.

The resolution to make a good attendance record will be merged in the broader purpose to make school attendance worth while. Comparative academic records like those shown in Table I may well be posted in public, and pupils irregular in attendance may be asked to study the data and to make a written analysis of the situation as it applies to themselves.

Whatever mode of treatment of chronic cases of irregular attendance may be followed, a case is really cured only when the pupil has cultivated a desire to be present at school because in his judgment it is worth while to be present.

SECONDARY AND SUPER-PRIMARY EDUCATION IN AUSTRALIA[1]

S. H. SMITH
Director of Education, New South Wales

The Commonwealth of Australia is a federation of six states. As the control of education is a function of the separate states, there are six distinct systems. Through the collaboration of the directors of education, who frequently meet in conference to discuss educational administration, there is a considerable degree of uniformity in methods and in aims. A brief description of the secondary-school system of New South Wales will serve to show in rough outline what is being done in one state. An attempt will be made to indicate such features in the school systems of the other states as differ from those in the school system of New South Wales.

The primary school in New South Wales provides a course of instruction for pupils up to about twelve years of age. On passing an exit examination, the pupil may be enrolled in one of several types of schools—high school, commercial school, junior technical school, and rural school in the case of boys and high school and domestic-science school in the case of girls. It is possible to accommodate all who desire to continue their education beyond the primary standard. If places cannot be found for all in the types of schools mentioned, they can be placed in super-primary classes attached to the larger primary schools.

The examination for entrance to high school is competitive because the number of children who desire high-school education is greater than the accommodations available. Places are allotted,

[1] The term "junior high school" is not used in Australia. The secondary or high school is a school giving a five-year course in cultural subjects; the school giving a three-year course, including prevocational subjects, is called a "super-primary" or "superior" school. Such schools may be commercial, junior technical, district rural, or domestic science, according to the curricular bias. Intermediate high schools and district schools are schools which give the first three years of the high-school course of cultural education.

therefore, in the order of merit as established by the marks at the examination. Those who fail to gain places are accommodated in intermediate high schools, district schools, or super-primary schools. The thirty high schools provide five-year courses of a general academic nature.

The intermediate high schools and district schools—similar in type, the difference being in enrolment only—are primary schools with secondary "tops," which provide instruction in the first three years of the high-school course. The secondary classes in such schools are taught by a staff distinct from the primary staff, one headmaster controlling the whole school. There are also ten thousand pupils in private secondary schools. These schools are registered schools and are required to submit themselves to periodic inspection by the educational department. The pupils of state high schools and of registered secondary schools undergo the same public examinations organized under a statutory board of examiners.

At the end of three years the pupils take the "intermediate-certificate" examination. Success in at least four subjects and a school record showing satisfactory progress in the remaining subjects of the syllabus are essential for the award of the certificate. At the end of the fifth year the pupils take the "leaving-certificate" examination in from six to ten subjects. This examination admits of university matriculation provided the pupil passes in specified subjects.

The high schools, intermediate high schools, and district schools employ nine hundred teachers for the secondary classes, not including part-time visiting teachers. The education department of New South Wales employs more than a thousand university graduates, that is, about 10 per cent of its teaching staff. Two of the high schools specialize in agriculture and one in technical subjects; several have special optional commercial courses.

The outstanding feature of the super-primary schools is the prevocational bias evident in the courses. This bias is not overwhelmingly strong because it is recognized that the inclinations of but few pupils are sufficiently marked and unalterable at twelve years of age to justify an attempt to fix definitely such inclinations. All that is claimed is that pupils with aptitude for industrial pursuits, business

activities, or rural industries will find an opportunity for development in these schools.

The attendance at these schools in 1926 was as follows: 1,651 pupils in fifteen commercial schools, 6,005 pupils in twenty-six junior technical schools, 8,725 pupils in forty-six domestic-science schools, and 1,089 pupils in fifteen rural schools. In addition, evening continuation schools enrolled 4,300 pupils. The work in these schools is, for the most part, of a super-primary character.

Both the junior technical schools and the domestic-science schools are closely linked with the trades' schools and technical colleges. The third-year course of the pupils in the junior technical schools is given at the technical college under the college staff in order to emphasize the vocational aspect of the subjects of instruction. For girls fifty scholarships are provided to permit meritorious domestic-science pupils to proceed to the home-economics course at the technical college.

The Vocational Guidance Bureau has placed in apprenticeship in a skilled trade every boy who has passed through the junior technical course. The pupil thus provided works for his employer during the day, attending classes at the technical college in the evening.

Rural schools provide prevocational training. They are also closely co-ordinated with the high-school system. The intermediate certificate has been adopted as the final examination of the course, and it is possible for those pupils who so desire to continue their education in the higher classes of the high schools.

Despite all these provisions, all possible pupils with aspirations toward super-primary education have not been reached. As the New South Wales department endeavors to lose no such pupils, super-primary education by correspondence has been instituted. Education of this type originated in New South Wales in 1916 and was applied first to young children whose primary needs in education had not been otherwise met. So successful was the experiment that it was afterward applied to older children who had reached the super-primary age. Leaflets are issued to 1,891 pupils in 527 small schools. In this way provision has been made for children who cannot attend high school to continue their education beyond the primary requirements.

In addition to the types of schools already mentioned, super-primary classes (seventh and eighth classes) are conducted in the larger primary schools; pupils from these classes are transferred to the intermediate high schools. In all, there are about 650 schools engaged in super-primary work, with another 500 primary schools in which seventh classes are conducted.

Much of the work in secondary education in New South Wales is carried on in private schools not directly controlled by the state department. Sixty-one such schools provide secondary education for 1,600 pupils up to the intermediate-certificate standard, and 8,500 pupils are provided for in eighty-three schools up to the leaving-certificate standard.

All primary, super-primary, and secondary education is free, and about twelve hundred students are exempt from the payment of lecture fees at the University of Sydney.

The types of schools in Victoria and in most of the Australian states are similar to those in New South Wales. In Victoria the junior technical schools, like those in New South Wales, assist pupils to determine the types of industrial or technical work for which they are best fitted, but the studies are kept sufficiently general to avoid forcing on the pupils premature vocational choices. The central schools are of an industrial type for boys who are entering unskilled occupations at an early age. The agricultural high schools devote one-third of the school time to agricultural studies, one-third to manual work, and one-third to general cultural studies.

Post-primary education in Victoria is free up to the age of fourteen years, after which a charge of £6 per annum or £2 per term is made.

There are in Victoria about 8,000 secondary pupils and 14,000 super-primary pupils. To these may be added 13,300 pupils more than fourteen years of age in registered schools.

While the general principles underlying the secondary systems of New South Wales and Victoria are, in the main, very similar, there are one or two features peculiar to Victoria.

The intermediate courses cover a period of from four to five years, but the leaving-certificate examination is taken twelve months after the intermediate-certificate examination, and a further

twelve months is spent by pupils seeking to gain honors at that examination. The intermediate-certificate examination is taken normally at the age of sixteen and the leaving-certificate examination at the age of seventeen.

The accrediting system has been introduced into Victoria. In the case of a few approved schools the leaving certificate may be obtained upon the production of a certificate signed by the headmaster.

Before schools can be approved for exemption from external examinations, they must be inspected by the secondary-school inspectors. If the reports are satisfactory, the school is approved for three years, subject to periodic inspection.

In an accrediting system there must be adequate safeguards. The director of education in Victoria, where the system has been adopted, said recently: "I am not satisfied that the question as to what constitutes adequate safeguards has really been worked out. It is not a simple matter. Any change which opens the door to slackness and improper practices would be disastrous to higher education."

South Australia is a state of small population (562,000), most of which is situated in the southern districts. Yet it has given considerable attention to secondary education and has twenty-four high schools, with a gross enrolment of 4,010 pupils, and a technical high school, which enrols about two hundred pupils. In addition, there are twenty-one higher primary schools (with a two-year course) and twelve technical schools. Fifty-three per cent of the 154 high-school teachers are university graduates. The higher or leaving-certificate examination is taken one year after the intermediate-certificate examination, but, as in Victoria, a fifth year is provided for aspirants for honors. As in the other states, the high school leads to the university, teachers' college, and the professions. It also serves—and this is true of all Australian secondary systems—to provide that broadening of intelligence which makes for culture and sound citizenship.

An interesting feature of secondary education in South Australia is the Kuitps Forest camp schools, which are conducted during the summer months. Each school consists of twenty-five high-school

pupils who attend for a session of ten days. The teacher, drawn from the high schools, is specially trained in forestry and is assisted by visiting experts. The course at this camp includes forest botany, silviculture, meteorology, physiography, mensuration, mapping, and plane-table work.

Both Western Australia and Queensland have well-organized secondary schools. There are at present six high schools in Western Australia, with 1,236 pupils taking a five-year course, and one district high school, with 208 pupils taking a three-year course. The demand for secondary education has increased far beyond the provisions made for it; consequently, post-primary courses have been established at eight central schools, with 2,975 pupils. In addition, there are thirty-two rural schools, twenty-eight of which have post-primary classes instructed by means of papers supplied through correspondence.

In Queensland secondary education was originally in the hands of grammar schools, the first of such schools being the Ipswich Grammar School, established in 1873. At the present time ten grammar schools, with 1,956 pupils, are subsidized by the state and periodically examined by departmental inspectors. There are thirteen state high schools, one of which (Gatton) is an agricultural high school of good repute.

The state of Queensland provides many scholarships. As a result of an examination in 1925, 448 candidates were granted scholarship allowances of from £4 to £30 each. The total number of state scholars receiving free secondary education in grammar schools, state high schools, or approved secondary schools is 3,351. The scholarship covers the first two and one-half years up to the university junior examination and a further two years up to the leaving standard or university matriculation.

Eleven district rural schools are in operation in Queensland, and in them boys and girls receive elementary instruction in agricultural science and processes. The boys take woodwork, metal-work, and other manual arts; the girls, domestic science and arts.

The number of state secondary schools in New South Wales is as follows: thirty high schools, thirty-nine intermediate high schools, and fifteen district schools. There are 18,571 pupils.

Two of the thirty high schools are agricultural high schools. One is situated twenty-three miles from the heart of the metropolis; the other is situated in the rich Riverina district, five hundred miles away. The majority of the pupils board at the schools. Hurlstone has ninety-two boarders and about sixty day pupils, Yanco has 112 boarders. Similarly, one of the high schools is a technical high school, where pupils study the high-school subjects in a technical environment. The agricultural high schools aim at giving a good general high-school education in an agricultural environment.

It is a principle of state policy that all children of satisfactory intellectual caliber should have equal opportunities for higher education. The government therefore provides a number of bursaries each year, these bursaries being tenable in secondary schools and at the University of Sydney.

At present about 1,200 pupils hold bursaries in the secondary schools and 120 in the University of Sydney. Bursars receive free textbooks and monetary allowances ranging from £12 to £65, varying according to circumstances. In addition, two hundred exhibitions are granted each year to the best candidates under the age of nineteen years passing from the secondary schools (state and non-state) to the University. These exhibitions confer exemption from fees for matriculation, lectures, and graduation at the University.

Many of the pupils from the secondary schools enter the teachers' college. Some of the students qualifying as primary teachers as well as those preparing for secondary-school work take up a four-year course. Three years are devoted to university courses in arts or science, the fourth year being occupied with the course for the diploma of education.

CONDITIONS WHICH JUSTIFY ESTABLISHING A JUNIOR COLLEGE

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University of Kansas

It has happened much too often that propaganda without the guidance of accepted criteria has seemed to be the chief basis employed in the establishing of a junior college. For several years it has been the privilege of the writer to have been called in by various communities and school officials to study their needs or their problems with reference to the junior college, sometimes to make a study regarding the desirability of establishing a junior college, sometimes to study the wisdom or method of continuing a junior college already established. The chief purpose of such investigations has been to assemble and present the essential facts involved so that the community might employ a factual basis in determining the best course to pursue or the best decision to make.

It is most encouraging that, when the facts and conditions have been placed before the people or their representatives in an adequate way, they prove quite competent to consider the relative merits of the problem and reach what usually seems to be the best decision. After carefully considering the desirable features of this type of college, the feasibility of its support, and the further responsibilities attendant upon its establishment, communities have frequently decided that it would be better to defer immediate action and thus avoid the disadvantage of unwarranted haste in establishing a local junior college.

It is significant that suspended action of this sort has occurred in some cities in which the people seemed already to have been convinced of the desirability of establishing a junior college. In other communities one may observe ample evidence that the decision to establish such a college was apparently made first and the facts obtained later, if at all. The one consideration involved in such decisions evidently must have been to get the college started as quickly

as possible. The first task should always be to secure the facts which are needed in making the right decision. The application of guiding principles, however adequate they may be, is dependent on full knowledge of the actual situation involved.

The conditions which pertain to the establishment of an efficient junior college will be discussed under four headings—(1) existing need, (2) cost of maintenance, (3) immediate urge, and (4) apparent prospects. Most of the principles involved may be treated under these headings, which have the further advantage of being simple and definite. Reference to the junior college in this article pertains chiefly to the public junior college.

The first of these headings—the existing need—has several phases, one of which relates to the probable number of students, as judged by both the number of persons in the community actually attending college and by the number of high-school graduates each year from which college students may be drawn. Another phase of the existing need of a junior college may be regarded as a regional problem rather than as a strictly local or municipal problem. As a third consideration, the actual need may be directly conditioned by the presence of one or more colleges in the community.

The minimum number of students which can be regarded as adequate for establishing a junior college will usually be well in excess of one hundred. In his excellent study of the junior-college situation, Koos has recommended that the minimum number of students in a junior college, when fully organized, should be two hundred.[1] The writer is inclined to think that in some instances at least a community may safely operate such a college with fewer than two hundred students. It is quite possible that there may be justification for a junior college with only 150 students enrolled.

It will be necessary, in general, for the freshman class to enrol 100 students in order that the total enrolment may not fall below 150 students. Usually about 50 per cent of the Freshmen in a junior college complete the sophomore year. It may be expected that the enthusiasm and interest attendant upon the novelty, local pride, or extended propaganda may succeed in holding a much larger percentage of the freshman class in a newly organized college. Over

[1] Leonard Vincent Koos, *The Junior College*, II, 581. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota, 1924.

a five- or ten-year period, however, it is safer to assume from the experiences of other junior colleges that 100 Freshmen each year will be required to maintain a total enrolment of 150 students in the junior college. A heavy responsibility is assumed, both educationally and financially, by a community which undertakes to operate a college with less than one hundred students. In spite of this responsibility, many communities have undertaken such an enterprise.

The need for a junior college should usually be thought of with reference to the territory or region which such an institution may reasonably be expected to serve. The need may apply to a region described by a radius of fifteen, twenty, or perhaps twenty-five miles from the location of the junior college as a center. In view of the good roads which already exist in many sections and which are being rapidly extended and the varied means of transportation which are available, college students may reasonably be expected to attend college daily from distances of from ten to twenty miles.

Certainly one may question the need or the wisdom of establishing a college where one of the most likely outcomes will be a duplication of the service which another institution already provides or is able to provide in the community. From the rivalry, conflict, and duplication attendant upon such a move, not much of value to the community may be expected. It is usually far better to co-operate with the existing college by providing popular support for the local college and a liberal subsidy if it is needed. The fact that the existing college is usually a private or denominational institution must be faced. This fact does not seem to offer any insurmountable difficulty to having such a college perform most of the functions expected of a public junior college. By providing financial assistance, the community should be able to demand adequate standards of instruction, which are of first importance.

The second of the four conditions to be discussed pertains to the cost involved in the support of a junior college. A preliminary consideration of the problem of maintenance, the sources of available income, and the ability of a community to support such an institution would seem to be well-nigh imperative. It is true in general that the junior college in the present stage of its development receives little or no state subsidy and, as a consequence, must depend

on support by a school district or a union of school districts. There are two chief sources of support by the community or district. These sources are taxation and tuition charges. In some instances there is only one of these sources of support; in other instances support is derived from both taxation and tuition.

It is of prime importance for a district facing the problem of supporting such an institution to take into account (1) the valuation of the property on which taxes may be levied, (2) the probable cost per student of operating a junior college, (3) additional demands with reference to salaries of college teachers, and (4) the cost of housing a junior college and providing such facilities as libraries and laboratories for college use. It is assumed in this discussion that the larger part of the maintenance cost is borne by taxation. The situation is, of course, somewhat different if the larger part of the needed support comes from tuition.

Many junior colleges have been established by communities whose total property valuation is grossly inadequate for such an undertaking. Frequently a misunderstanding of the cost, perhaps actual assurance that the expense would be equivalent only to an extension of the high-school enrolment, has been responsible for the decision to establish a college. Such misinformation distributed in a community may indicate not intentional misrepresentation but merely a lack of knowledge and the absence of facts on the part of those whose business it is "to know" in order to provide the public with adequate information.

In some cities which maintain junior colleges no one really knows how much the institutions are costing. The writer has asked superintendents for information as to the cost per student enrolled in the junior-college division of the school and has received only opinion for an answer. One superintendent who said he thought that the cost was no greater than that in the high school provided facts on request which showed that the cost was more than 50 per cent greater. In truth, he did not think at all, since he took no account of the facts which would be essential in thinking and which would have made thinking possible. Situations of this sort may sometimes be due to an unwillingness to face the facts. Sometimes they may be traced to lack of training or experience in computing costs or to a habit of

reaching conclusions without full and detailed knowledge of the facts. Yet the community which is to pay for the junior college certainly has a right to know what the cost is or is to be.

A fair estimate of the probable cost per student of a well-organized and efficient junior college having 150 students enrolled is $200 a year. On this basis, the total cost per year for 150 students is $30,000. A two-mill levy on a $15,000,000 valuation is required to provide this amount by direct taxation. Probably two mills should usually be regarded as the maximum district levy to be devoted to the support of a junior college; therefore, $15,000,000 is the minimum property valuation necessary for the support of a junior college whose size and cost are as estimated here. Some strong colleges of this type are operated for less than this estimated cost, but so frequently are the claims of lower cost based on fallacious methods of calculation that one may well be skeptical of such claims or of the character of the colleges maintained.

The writer would not imply that purposeful misrepresentation is usual, but a partial reporting of the costs is not unusual. One form of error arises from charging only the salaries of the college teaching staff to the operation of the junior college. Certainly, in making a fair accounting, it would seem reasonable and necessary to allocate to the junior college a suitable charge for the building space and equipment used, even when these are shared jointly by the college and the high school. The total cost of such special items as additional library and laboratory facilities should be included. A fair portion of other expenses, such as those for heat, light, janitor service, and insurance, should also be charged.

Likewise, some portion of the general cost of administration and supervision should be included in computing the cost. It happens that in some places the high-school principal is also dean of the junior college. The writer has in mind a system in which the superintendent and the high-school principal, according to the statement of the former, gave approximately one-half of their time to insuring the success of the junior college during the first two years of its existence. This certainly constituted a part of the cost of the junior college, since other divisions of the school system were thus deprived of the time which the two school officers devoted to the college. One

of the grave dangers arising from an incorrect or partial accounting of costs is that the junior college may actually consume funds intended for other units in the school system and needed by them.

It is true that the salary of the college faculty is generally the largest single item in the cost of operating the college. It is also true that it is necessary, in spite of opinion at times expressed to the contrary, to pay more for competent teachers in a junior college than for teachers in the high school. Junior colleges set up additional standards, make new demands, and require more training—the trend is apparently toward a year of graduate study as a minimum requirement for junior-college teachers—and in simple fairness the community should expect to pay for the additional qualifications demanded.

If the schedule of salaries for high-school teachers is entirely adequate (which often is not true), junior-college teachers may expect to receive yearly from $200 to $300 above the high-school schedule in recognition of the fact that they are a more highly selected group. Furthermore, it is not deemed practical from the standpoint of securing the largest returns in scholastic service to permit college teachers to carry as many teaching hours as is usual in high-school teaching. Consequently, the ratio of teachers to students will tend to be larger in college. This will in turn tend to add to the salary budget.

Under the heading "cost of maintenance," one principle which seems of paramount importance is that no community should seriously undertake to establish a junior college, nor long continue one in existence, if the community is unwilling or unable to pay adequate salaries to its elementary-school and high-school teachers. The salaries of its teachers constitute the best single criterion for judging the efficiency of a school or school system. Achievement in college will necessarily be conditioned by the effectiveness of the schooling which precedes the college years. It is not a good policy in education any more than in mechanics to build higher and higher on a foundation that is weak or insecure.

The cost of housing a junior college will depend very much on whether a portion of the high-school building is available for this purpose or whether a new structure is required. Even if a new build-

ing is necessary, some economies may be effected in a small school system by locating college and high-school buildings in close proximity so as to permit the use by both of the same heating system, the same janitor service, the same auditorium, and perhaps to some extent the same gymnasium, laboratories, and library equipment. In brief, then, the housing cost will be dependent on the building situation in the community.

Passing from the item of cost, we shall consider briefly the third division of this subject, which deals with what has been called "the urge." By this term is meant the timeliness of the proposal, the readiness of the people for a junior college, and the community situation with reference to the probability of developing a creditable institution. The urge may be thought of as the community attitude in general toward the matter. It would seem undesirable to impose a junior college on a community which has little idea of the responsibilities involved. It would, indeed, be unfortunate for the future of a junior college if it were expected to represent merely two more years of schooling, if it were promoted primarily for the business purpose of improving the town as a trading center, or if a spirit of rivalry with some other town which has a junior college should lead to the hasty establishment of an institution which is a college in name only.

If there is a genuine urge for a junior college, the community will doubtless be ready to face the demands imposed by a college, especially those pertaining to a competent teaching staff, an adequate salary schedule, and a varied curriculum. The efficiency of the instruction is by far the best single basis for judging an institution of higher education. Showiness, publicity, or glamor may not strongly invite and hold community pride; nor will they provide a suitable substitute for the educational effectiveness of an institution of higher learning. If a community is not ready to accept the responsibility attached or if there is no unified feeling of urge toward such an undertaking, it is usually far better to delay action until such interest and understanding can be developed so as to make it really a community enterprise.

Again, the amount of either school or municipal indebtedness or both may have a definite bearing on the timeliness of establishing a junior college. The indebtedness may be so large as to make the as-

sumption of further tax burdens seem undesirable. Still other administrative problems may demand immediate solution before extended or serious consideration should be given to a junior college. Perhaps a revision of the salary schedule or of the curriculum or some other steps of reorganization may claim precedence. The timeliness of the junior-college project would then seem to be dependent on a satisfactory solution of these more urgent problems.

The fourth division of the conditions which may justify the establishment of a junior college in a given community involves the educational outlook or the apparent prospects pertaining to such an institution. It seems entirely appropriate in establishing a junior college to consider the probable outcome in the type and character of the institution. The outlook or prospects may be revealed, for example, by the attitude of the community toward generous support or undue economy in the operation of a college. The sort of economy which impairs efficiency is likely to be a formidable handicap. Other features of the outlook may be apparent in the form of a general expectation in the community that the junior-college students will be shielded from the necessity of meeting the standard requirements of recognized colleges or perhaps in a general misunderstanding of the functions of a college. The outlook may pertain also to still more involved and complex elements in the situation.

If cheapness of operation is likely to claim more consideration than functional efficiency, the establishment of a junior college should be discouraged. If it seems highly probable that inferior scholarship is likely to characterize the work of the college, whether it be traceable eventually to the administration, the instruction, or the community influences, the only decision warranted is a decision not to establish such a college. The observance of college standards in the development and operation of a junior college must be regarded as a prime requisite.

In simple fairness it should be stated that among the most commendable tendencies in the development of the junior college have been the evident desire of those in authority to observe college standards and their readiness to seek counsel in order to avoid any marked deviation from such standards. Frequent official and unofficial intercourse between junior colleges and the colleges and universities

which their students may later enter has tended to assure the recognition by junior colleges of such standards as now prevail in freshman-sophomore work in the four-year institutions. In truth, the junior colleges have in some instances tended actually to raise the existing standards. Without such strict observance of standards, the students enrolled may innocently receive and accept a denatured type of training as standard college instruction.

It is not entirely a matter of free choice for the local community to decide whether it will observe the usually recognized standards in its junior college. It is a fairly commonly accepted fact in some states that a public junior college may not be able to survive unless the work of its students is accredited at the state university as the equivalent of the first two years of university instruction. This fact practically means that a community must later pay a heavy price if it fails to provide an efficient junior college.

The position taken by some public critics of the junior college—and when we get public criticism, the public is evidently interested—to the effect that concern for amateur scholarship and culture for its own sake may be lost in the junior college deserves sympathetic attention. Criticisms recently appearing in the *Atlantic Monthly*, for example, emphasize the possibility that junior colleges will become increasingly preparatory to professional schools and that scholarship in the traditional and cultural sense may be correspondingly neglected. Such a danger, if real, constitutes one of the more subtle difficulties involved in the eventual outcome of junior-college training. Perhaps a new type of scholarship—professional, scientific, and democratic—is destined to replace the more academic, traditional, and aristocratic type of scholarship which we are warned may be lost. Perhaps, after all, the warning expressed is timely in view of the hasty multiplication of junior colleges, and, if the danger pointed out is of threatening proportions, its effect should be minimized by this warning.

Another feature of the outlook may demand attention, especially as it pertains to the small junior college. It is widely recognized that one of the significant values in college training comes from the many and varied social contacts and from the development of a critical attitude, that is, the ability to make intelligent discriminations.

If it appears that there is less opportunity for students to develop such qualities in the small college than in a larger institution, this fact would certainly claim attention among the pertinent facts and principles to which this discussion relates. That such a consideration demands serious attention seems to be evident from the fact that in a recent (unpublished) investigation made in a state university more than five hundred Juniors and Seniors agreed that no other statement in a long list so well represented the most valued outcome of their college training as the following: "It has made me know better my own abilities and possibilities by comparison with the many other students with whom I have worked or played." Apparently college-trained students are disposed to regard very highly those contacts which are sometimes thought of as only marginal values derived from a college training.

The statement which held second rank as expressing the general sentiment of these college students with reference to the value of their college training is as follows: "The training has given me a more critical attitude in my own thinking." Unless we assume that the training of these students was unusual or that they were incompetent to judge the values derived from their college training, the values that rank high in their minds should be taken into account in judging the ability of institutions to offer effective college training. Presumably, any institution which is characterized by inherent handicaps in size, staff, or organization in providing these valued types of training should not be encouraged to start or to continue lest its students may be deprived of some of the most valued outcomes of a college training.

The conditions discussed under the four headings of need, cost, urge, and prospects deserve serious consideration prior to the establishment of a junior college. The possibilities of making a wrong start are numerous and diverse. Therefore, it seems highly desirable that a fuller recognition be given to those more generally accepted principles and standards which are involved in making a good beginning. This may do much to displace propaganda, rivalry, and haste as determining factors in giving origin to a multiplicity of very small public junior colleges.

THE SERVICE BUREAU FOR CLASSICAL TEACHERS

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Four years ago, under the direction of the American Classical League and with its support, the Service Bureau for Classical Teachers was established, with headquarters at Teachers College, Columbia University. The step was a new one, an altogether novel departure in educational developments, and necessarily fraught with difficulties. Now that the stage of experimentation has passed into recognized and approved achievement, it is fitting and timely to survey the work the bureau has accomplished, the new stimulus and approach it has inspired, and the broader field it has disclosed.

Primarily, the bureau is not a research body. It functions, rather, very much as does the United States Bureau of Education. It is essentially a meeting-place, a virtual agora, a storehouse for the gathering and distribution of information relative to the pedagogical and cultural aspects of the work of classical teachers. At all times it is ready to offer its services, to advise the large corps of secondary-school and college teachers, to suggest methods of handling various themes, to furnish bibliographies and material on a variety of topics, ranging from Latin magazines and plays to the presentation of a Roman banquet.

Nor are the activities of the bureau local or regional in scope. The entire country is included in its field of operations. At the same time it does not conflict with any of the classical organizations previously established. It is supplementary and complementary to them, co-operates with them, and, indeed, invites assistance from educators in other fields, from publishers, from teachers, and from all others interested.

The fact that the bureau is a kind of headquarters involves, however, no implication of passivity on its part. It is, on the contrary, constantly dynamic, under the competent direction of Frances E. Sabin. It is always in search of new material, new movements, and

keeps abreast of all pedagogical tendencies in the classical field. Some of the material it accumulates is kept on file for personal consultation by teachers, while such topics as are of widespread interest are published in *Latin Notes*, a leaflet that is issued eight times a year. The bureau also publishes supplements which deal with particular phases of pedagogical technique and offer reading matter from authors other than those studied in high schools or novel features, such as Latin cross-word puzzles. There is a steadily growing series of pamphlets and little handbooks that treat of linguistic topics, mythology, archaeology, private antiquities, and other germane matters. It keeps in touch with the classical publications and arranges special bibliographical lists relating in particular to Caesar, Cicero, and Vergil.

A selection of concrete examples will best illustrate some of the activities of the bureau. Its correspondence is abundant and diversified, including all manner of inquiries. A teacher writes for a simplified account of the manuscript tradition of Cicero's speeches. Another asks for material dealing with the correlation between Latin and English. A high-school curriculum is about to be revised, and the superintendent wants details about the construction of a four-year Latin course. Requests are received for suggestions for Latin clubs and for information as to books, pictures, and other equipment for the classroom teacher. Teachers ask: How can Latin be made interesting? How was a Roman election conducted? What is the best approach in a beginning class? The replies involve knowledge, labor, and tact. The bureau also sends out mimeographed and printed items. There are at present about three hundred such items; some of these may be borrowed; others may be purchased at nominal sums. They cover the academic and pedagogical phases of secondary-school Latin. Two leaflets list the material that is available. This material includes an outline of Roman history, a method in translation, a statement of the value of the classics, an article on Roman dress, an easy Latin play, and suggestions for a Caesar exhibit. Outlines and other aids are furnished to instructors who are planning courses in methods. Teachers are supplied on request with data accumulated from sources often difficult of access to the individual. In addition, the bureau offers constructive criticisms and

suggestions to those who desire to engage in special phases of study. It has even initiated the publication of textbooks.

An interesting side light on the daily routine may be gleaned from the types of visitors. A psychologist comes to inquire into the aims and the formal machinery that make the organization function. A short-story writer wishes to examine classical material suitable for children's stories. A publisher is interested in finding a Latin teacher to write a certain textbook. A teacher wants to build up a classical library and needs guidance. Another teacher wants to know how to make a model of a Roman house. Another is looking for slides on Roman life. Still another is in search of a bibliography. A teacher of French investigates the methods of teaching Latin. A Chinese student wishes to get ideas that may be applied to the teaching of Chinese.

It is evident, then, that the Service Bureau for Classical Teachers not only fills a clamant need but also touches other educational developments, is branching and growing and fulfilling a recognized function, and is a flaming token of the "awareness" of the classics and of their stimulating liveness.

HIGH-SCHOOL CLUBS

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Probably no authority in the field of education today would deny that the so-called "extra-curriculum" period is slowly but surely coming into its own. There are so many problems connected with the putting of theory into practice, however, and the advantages are so doubtful until the practice is somewhat perfected that the beginner is likely to be discouraged. The best guide is the experience of other schools where the plan has been worked out. The difficulty, however, in following the experience of others is the dissimilarity of circumstances in the different schools.

This article presents the situation in the Normandy High School and the difficulties encountered in administering the activity program and discusses several ideas which are commonly advanced in describing methods of administering an activity program but which the writer believes are ill advised.

Four years ago the extra-curriculum period was inaugurated at the Normandy High School, a combined junior and senior high school enrolling approximately five hundred pupils. It was decided to have an extra-curriculum period every day, and the daily program which was started at that time has not been materially changed. The present program is shown in Table I.

The two club days in the extra-curriculum program were new to the school, and the question of their success caused the greatest concern. We started with the idea that the clubs were to appeal to genuine pupil interest and that, if there was a lack of appeal to the pupils, something was wrong with the club.

The faculty debated for some time whether to have the activity period in the morning or in the afternoon after the last class period. The idea of having the extra-curriculum period the last period in the day was finally abandoned because we anticipated the following difficulties: first, a great many parents would not approve of such

clubs and would insist that their children be dismissed at the end of the last regular class period; second, the pupils in their anxiety to get home would "cut" the activity period so frequently that the clubs would fail and discipline in the school would be endangered; and, third, the pupils would be too fatigued at the end of the school day to be interested in club work.

We therefore tried a morning activity period of thirty-five minutes. The plan worked well for the assemblies and the class meetings, but the club days were disheartening. With one or two exceptions, there was very little real interest in the clubs. We tried different clubs; we read everything we could find on the subject; and we did everything we could to make the clubs a success. In spite of our efforts, the club periods were a drag the whole year; little was accomplished; and it was difficult to keep the pupils from using the time for visiting.

TABLE I

PROGRAM OF EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES IN THE NORMANDY HIGH SCHOOL

Day	Junior High School	Senior High School
Monday	Clubs	Clubs
Tuesday	Singing	Class meetings
Wednesday	Class meetings	Singing
Thursday	Assembly for all pupils	Assembly for all pupils
Friday	Clubs	Clubs

The chief objection to the morning period was that the work of most of the clubs was not suited to a period of set length. The orchestra needed at least an hour for practice. Clubs could not make excursions. The Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts, the athletic clubs, the band, the glee clubs—in fact, nearly all the clubs found that the definite time limit interfered with their proper functioning and consequently pupils lost interest. In addition to this important objection, there were two other objections to a morning period. First, the transition from classroom work to club work and back again to classroom work involved some loss of time and momentum. Second, the middle of the morning was the best time for the pupils to do mental work. Since the major part of the club work was manual, the best part of the school day was not used to the best advantage.

Having faith in the plan of setting aside a part of the school day for clubs, we resolved the next year to brave the dangers of having the activities the last period in the day. The result has been more than satisfactory. The main objection to the last period—the desire of the parents to have their children at home—did not materialize. When the plan was initiated, we had many requests from parents to excuse their children at the end of the last class period, but most of these requests were withdrawn when we explained the importance of the club work and asked that the children be permitted to stay. There are many arguments in favor of the activity program, and we found that the parents were anxious to co-operate when they understood the plan and its purpose.

Another hindrance—the anxiety of the pupils to leave school as soon as possible and the resulting "cuts"—caused some of the trouble anticipated, but insistence on the part of the faculty and the pupil officers that all pupils stay eventually solved the problem. A year after the plan was started, we found that pupils were more likely to "cut" other periods of the school day than to "cut" the activity period. When staying until 3:10 P.M. had become habitual, it did not seem a hardship to stay. If it were not for the fact that many pupils have to leave on special busses, we would try doing without the bell which announces the end of the period.

We were also surprised to find that the element of fatigue did not appreciably affect the activity period. The natural play period for most children is after school hours, and the club work has profited by the infusion of the play spirit and the spontaneous interest on the part of the pupils. Most children seem to acquire renewed energy about the time classroom work is over, and they undertake their play and private plans with a great deal of enthusiasm.

All pupils must be engaged in club work from 2:35 to 3:10 P.M. on Monday and Friday. The school teams start dressing for practice at 2:35; the various managers of the *Courier* and *Saga* staffs often leave at that time to visit the printer or to solicit advertising; excursions and "hikes" may start then; and many clubs begin work which ends at half-past three, four o'clock, or later. The period of indefinite length does not interfere with the scheduled work of the classroom; the type of club work has been broadened; and the in-

fluence of the club sponsor has been extended farther into the play life of the pupils.

At present there are thirty teachers in the school and approximately seven hundred pupils. The following clubs are in operation:

Junior Girls' Athletics
Girl Scouts
Junior Boys' Athletics (two teachers)
Senior Library
Junior Library (two teachers)
Student Council
Rifle Club
Tumbling and Boxing Club
Senior Boys' Athletics (two teachers)
Band
Orchestra
Boys' Glee Club
Girls' Glee Club
Social Service Club
Gift Club
Charm Club
Boy Scouts
Saga (school yearbook)
Courier (school newspaper)
Pen and Brush Club
Dramatic Club
Science Club
Debating Club
Corridor Officers

The Hi-Y Club, the N Club, and the Hockey Club are also active, but they do not meet regularly during the activity period.

The demand for clubs of a certain type changes. Hence, certain clubs are dropped and others added occasionally to meet the demands. We no longer presume to know what the pupils want. For example, the Radio Club has been a disappointment. Seven years ago we had a very active radio club which was doing fine work. In the last few years we have found it impossible to keep up the interest in such a club without spending a great amount of money. The lack of interest is apparently not the fault of the sponsor. It is simply due to the fact that radio has reached a stage where it no longer interests boys. They could, no doubt, be interested if they had a great deal of

expensive equipment. Seven years ago a crystal set was sufficient equipment to attract a club of boys, but now it would take all kinds of transformers, condensers, tubes, and probably a sending set to hold a club together.

Many pupils do not know what clubs they wish to join, or they do not wish to join any club. They are like many adults who cannot be interested in any kind of movement. The libraries are used for them and for pupils who have become dissatisfied with one club and contemplate joining another. In the library an effort is made to determine the pupils' interests and, if possible, to get them started in a club which they can enjoy.

The faculty sponsor of a club is a very important factor in the club's success. It is impossible—with our limited means, at any rate —always to find a member of the faculty who will be happy and efficient in the management of a club which pupils demand. We have simplified the problem for the sponsor immeasurably by making the clubs appeal to the natural interests of the pupils, but the success of a club depends on having a teacher as sponsor who has had training in the particular line of work. The sponsor of the Pen and Brush Club, for example, should have had training in art. No matter how willing she is or how much the pupils like her, she cannot guide them in this field unless she has had special training. In the last year or so we have been able to improve this situation by selecting teachers whose training is such that they can help certain clubs. For example, other factors being equal, there is no reason why, when we are in need of an English teacher, a teacher should not be elected who has had some work in art. Teaching, however, should never be made secondary to activity interests.

A statement often heard in connection with clubs is that they should grow out of class work. This statement is misleading and beside the point. One might say that clubs should never grow out of class work and be just as nearly right. In most cases clubs should arise out of the play or instinctive interests of children. It is unquestionably true that they may and often do arise out of classroom work, but to make that source a prerequisite to the formation of a club handicaps an activity program from the start. The question to be asked in determining the value of a club is: How much growth do

pupils get out of the club? Whether or not that growth parallels or supplements classroom work is a relatively unimportant question.

We consider the activity period as important as any other period in the school day for the following reasons.

1. It gives pupils greater interest in regular class work.
2. It helps pupils find themselves.
3. It often supplements the regular work of the classroom.
4. It often provides valuable instruction which is not touched upon by school subjects.
5. Many things can be done in the activity period which would otherwise have to be done in the classroom; thus, it saves time.
6. It often serves to keep pupils in school.
7. It creates a more wholesome relation between teachers and pupils.
8. It makes it possible to project the influence of the teacher farther into the play life of the pupils.
9. It makes possible a fuller use of the equipment of the school.
10. It offers many opportunities for the practice of the good qualities of a citizen in a democracy.

The advantages of a good activity program are so great that its planning deserves careful consideration on the part of teachers. It deserves and will eventually have greater moral support from parents and better financial support from school boards.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Organizing the total educational opportunities of the school community.—From decade to decade there is a remarkable evolution to be seen in the range and scope of the school life of the secondary-school pupil. At the end of the nineteenth century a school was an exception if its administration and teaching corps paid attention to any part of the pupils' lives beyond that directly associated with the actual labors of the classroom. We have made considerable progress since the time when the school began to promote the debating society because it was independently interesting to the pupils and yet respectably academic and to absorb the football team because of motives that flavored of self-preservation. Indeed, the question is sometimes raised as to whether the school has absorbed the football team or vice versa.

A recent book[1] affords very little comfort to the teacher who hopes that we may return to the scholastic simplicity of the "nebulous nineties." However much one may yearn for a placid nine-to-four school day, with nothing more exciting than the predicaments in which Julius Caesar found himself or those in which he managed to involve his adversaries, the author leaves no doubt in the mind of the reader that the modern secondary school is a throbbing community.

As presented in this treatise, the range of extra-curriculum activities is startling even to the seasoned school administrator. They extend from the preparation of the student handbook to the management of the school bank. The author offers suggestions for the conduct of school parties, the arrangement of the commencement exercises, the fostering of the honor society, the preparation of the program of the boy scouts, the treatment of the problem of secret societies, and the handling of the assembly. This picture of the modern high school suggests that secondary schools place a real strain on the energy and the versatility of the principals and teachers.

The swing of the study of pupil behavior from questions of deportment to those of citizenship is reflected in the chapter on "Citizenship and School Spirit." There is a searching analysis of the means of developing citizenship and of fostering the idea of school welfare rather than teacher convenience as the basis for choice of conduct. The discussion leads directly and smoothly into the next chapter, "Manners and Courtesy."

[1] Harry C. McKown, *Extracurricular Activities*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927. Pp. xxii+618.

Certain dangers which must be guarded against in the administration of pupil activities are well handled: secret societies, the menace of overemphasis on athletics, pitfalls in the financial management of student organizations, and overindulgence or underindulgence in student activities.

> There is probably nothing improper about the practice of the Chamber of Commerce, for instance, in giving a banquet to boys who have brought honor to the town. But when local clothing houses give them suits, hats, shirts; barber shops give them haircuts and shaves; pressing establishments press their clothes for a year; and bootblacks promise to shine their shoes for a year, it is time to call a halt. Such lionizing emphasizes athletics far beyond their worth, and the players are being paid for playing. Playing for profit is professionalism. It has no business in the school [p. 251].

A commendable feature of the book is found in the definite recommendations or suggestions for regulating practices. For instance, in the chapter on "Financial Administration of Extracurricular Activities" a definite plan for receiving, handling, and accounting for the funds is offered and appropriate forms are presented. The plan takes into consideration not only the problem of caring for the funds but also the opportunity of providing training in business practice.

The treatment of school publications is an example of the thoroughgoing manner in which the whole field of pupil activities is explored. The school newspaper, the magazine, the yearbook, and the handbook are discussed. Their functions are pointed out as well as the distinctions which should be drawn between them. Lists of materials suitable to each and plans for their organization are presented.

The chief merits of the book are three: its comprehensiveness, its definite constructiveness, and its systematic formulation of principles. In the last feature, especially, the book is excellent. The busy administrator is helped more by the pointing out of relationships than by an encyclopedic account of present practice. The author cites definite instances of practice and makes suggestions as to procedure, but he goes still farther, organizing the topic in such a way as to show its general educational background.

H. H. RYAN

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

The need for industrial education.—Having accepted the training of industrial workers as a legitimate part of our national program of education, leaders in this special field feel called upon to interpret the present programs of industrial education for student teachers and those engaged in the general administration of education. Recent publications indicate that two methods of procedure are practical. The first is a survey type of procedure which discloses the actual facts that point to the need for industrial education and indicate the detailed curriculum to be used. The second method endeavors to account for industrial education by introducing the historical and sociological implications that have operated to bring it about and that will serve as a basis for future

growth. There is thus presented in a book[1] representing the latter method of attack a body of historical data which clearly suggest the need of training industrial workers in educational institutions. The extent to which apprenticeship is effective in solving the problem of the industrial worker in the present machine age is treated in full.

In addition, all the present types of educational institutions that assist in solving some aspects of the vital problem of industrial education are analyzed and their relative merits discussed. Evening schools, part-time schools, continuation classes, correspondence courses, corporation schools, industrial-arts courses in general education, and modern apprenticeships in industry contribute in varying degrees of effectiveness to the education of workers. These agencies are dealt with in a practical and complete manner.

The author recognizes the place of women in industry and in characteristic fashion first reviews the steps by which the female workers entered upon industrial pursuits and then shows their present status and the educational situation their place in industry has brought about.

In the final division of the book there are several chapters on administrative policies, problems, and practices. In these, the discussion of the Smith-Hughes law is most worth while.

In the light of recent publications on the subject, this contribution is not entirely unique. The book does, however, accomplish in a most satisfactory way its purpose of giving to school administrators and student teachers a comprehensive and intelligent interpretation of the industrial-education situation.

ROBERT WOELLNER

Discussion groups for younger girls in high school.—With the growth of the modern high school, it has become increasingly difficult to provide for personal contact between the girls and an adviser and to furnish opportunities for the development of social attitudes and standards. Throughout the country, deans of girls have been experimenting with girls' leagues, discussion clubs, and group conferences with the hope of injecting a human touch into an otherwise mechanical organization. It is with this type of problem that a recent book[2] is fundamentally concerned.

In the Preface the author states that she experimented for five years with such groups, for she was anxious to see girls' interests through their own eyes. The course presented started with a definite general outline but with no details planned. Out of informal talks with girls about their problems an excellent book has been formulated, which is especially valuable because it is the direct outgrowth of girls' experiences.

The course aims to provide material which will assist girls in working out

[1] Arthur B. Mays, *The Problem of Industrial Education.* New York: Century Co., 1927. Pp. xii+416. $2.25.

[2] Jessie E. Gibson, *On Being a Girl.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1927. Pp. xiv+326.

their individual problems. The emphasis is laid on the girl's responsibility for her problems and her attitude toward them rather than on the problems themselves. This has been the guiding principle in the selection of material.

The discussion centers about three main topics: "The Girl: Her Community," "The Girl: Her Family and Friends," and "The Girl: Her Personal Problems." The material as outlined is intended for girls in the freshman year of the high school, but there is no reason why the same material could not be used for older girls, nor why it should be restricted to use in high schools. Its content is equally appropriate for groups outside the school environs.

The author is to be commended for the organization and the completeness of the bibliography. At the end of each unit is an excellent list of books on the topics discussed which is intended for the guidance and background of the leader of the group. Even more suggestive and valuable is the bibliography for the girls themselves. This bibliography contains interesting material, which should aid girls in solving their problems or in gaining broader experiences and finer personality.

Throughout the book one senses the fine touch of a capable, intelligent, and understanding woman. Her principles are sane, unemotional, and broad. She has touched the life of the adolescent girl at every angle and has left it more wholesome, more balanced, and more womanly.

The book should be in the possession of every woman who has the privilege of influencing and guiding young girls, for it is the best book of its kind now in print.

ELSIE M. SMITHIES

A review treatment of German grammar for college students.—For the most part, the production of modern-language textbooks proceeds along its well-marked way with a happy disregard of needs. For example, we have from twelve to twenty editions of *Immensee* and perhaps a few less of *Germelshausen*, *L'Arrabbiata*, etc.; yet every year it is difficult to find fresh material for "advanced composition," the somewhat pretentious designation usually applied to the art of translating connected English sentences into German.

Another necessity is at last beginning to receive its meed of attention, namely, the review grammar. In 1925 Mankiewicz and Leuchs published an excellent textbook, *German Review and Exercise Book;* in 1927 Peter Hagboldt, already well known as a finder of new paths to language mastery, published *Essentials of German Reviewed.*[1]

In most elementary courses grammar is learned somewhat inductively and therefore somewhat unconsciously. A review in the second course is not merely a repetition. It is a formulating of experience, a transferring of acquired *Sprachgefühl* into rule and order. The review should be systematic and comprehensive,

[1] Peter Hagboldt, *Essentials of German Reviewed.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1927. Pp. xii+144. $1.60.

but it should also be economical of time, since the amount of text mastery required of the student is several times as much as in the elementary course. A review grammar is an efficient conserver of time.

Ordinarily, a textbook should not be reviewed until it has been used, and this is especially true of a work like this, which is to be judged finally by its effectiveness. In view, however, of the dearth of such books as Hagboldt's *Essentials of German Reviewed*, an early greeting seems more important than a more exact enumeration of merits and defects.

The jacket description of the book announces eight outstanding features, which may be abbreviated into three chief ones: (1) a great variety of exercises of the direct-method type, providing practice material sufficient for several quarters or semesters; (2) a classified vocabulary, including 850 of the 1,200 words adopted as a basis by the Chicago Association of Modern Language Teachers; (3) exercises which lead the student gradually and pleasantly to free composition.

Of the three promises, the first two appear to the reviewer to be carried out to the letter. The last one indicates an ideal that was frequently abandoned for practical purposes, for it was no doubt found that the sentence, not the paragraph, must be the problem of the review grammar. The orthodox reformer of several years ago rejected all English-German translation exercises. The moderate reformer of today tolerates them if they are not strictly dictionary achievements, that is, if the ideas have been thought through or spoken through first. This last stronghold cannot be abandoned. *Schreib wie du sprichst* is the fundamental maxim of good style, but it cannot be followed unless some preliminary speaking is indulged in. To accomplish this, a greater number of texts for narration, such as are founds in Lesson 1, 2, 14, and 15, would have been desirable. The accompanying exercises could have offered variations of the original theme, and the final achievement would have been a rendition of the original theme from a different point of view. This is a severe demand but not an impossible one, for Lesson 2 approximates the method.

To enumerate the merits of the book briefly is impossible. Every lesson, every page, is written with a constant awareness of the questions the student will ask and of the errors he will make. As an example of the latter, Lesson 16 may be singled out. In a set of special exercises the student is drilled on the distinction between such words as *bitten* and *fragen; beten, bitten*, and *bieten; begegnen* and *treffen; lieben* and *gleichen; fühlen* and *sich fühlen; werden* and *bekommen*. Both in the exercises and in the brief compendium of grammar is a prudent omission of unnecessary detail. In the latter the rules are brief, and the examples are as adequate as possible. It is the reviewer's opinion that grammar review would be more effective with the aid of this book than with the help of any similar textbook now available.

LAWRENCE M. PRICE

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

The mental health of the child.—The demand for scientific information regarding methods for the control and lessening of mental disease is urgent. In 1880 there were 40,942 persons in the United States under care in public institutions because of mental disease; in 1920 the number had increased to 232,680. The increase was from 81.6 per 100,000 in 1880 to 220 per 100,000 in 1920.

Obviously, the only way to remedy such a situation is through prevention. Society in general is beginning to assume a more hopeful attitude toward preventive medicine. Until recently, this attitude has been one-sided, taking into account only the physical aspects of the problem and almost totally ignoring the mental aspects.

The application of psychiatric methods and criteria to education is still a novelty. At present the teacher has little time and opportunity to make a personal study of her pupils. Moreover, very little in her training fits her for the task of studying them from that standpoint. Teachers need mental hygiene for their own healthful adjustment and for the proper solution of the problems they are called upon to handle.

In a recent book[1] an attempt has been made to present a broad general survey of the field of mental hygiene for teachers and mothers in order that they may school themselves and their pupils or children in the way of the healthy mind. It is hoped that the mental health of the community will be improved as a result.

Although the book covers a wide field, the subject is handled without superficiality. The first part of the book treats the forces that determine personality; the second, inheritance and the development of traits; the third, mental hygiene of adult life; and the fourth, mental hygiene of childhood and adolescence.

The author considers the self as an ensemble of phreno-mental traits and believes that this idea is fundamental to the understanding of the true nature of mental health and illness. When an organ of the body seriously underfunctions or overfunctions, the individual suffers physical illness. Similarly, when a trait center in the brain overfunctions or underfunctions, mental disturbance follows. The ideal for the child is to determine the desirable traits or centers that are strongest in him by inheritance and then to attempt to build his personality around them.

In the second part of the book is a general consideration of how human traits are handed down by inheritance and how they develop. There is a description of some mental diseases with suggestions as to treatment. A chapter in the third part deals with the mind and health. The relation of mental states to physical disease is pointed out. The author probably ascribes too great powers to the mind in the healing of physical disease although its influence in aiding the resistive forces of the body cannot be doubted. To prove his point, the author quotes from a medical work of the sixteenth century to show that fear affects the spleen. At the present time, medical science is still uncertain as to the function

[1] Daniel Wolford La Rue, *Mental Hygiene*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927. Pp. x+444. $2.20.

of the spleen and the things which may affect it. However, this section of the book is concluded with an excellent sketch of the conditions that must be met by anyone who would preserve his mental health.

The material in the final part of the book is well presented in a small amount of space. The child, like the adult, is considered as an ensemble of phrenomental traits, and methods of developing these traits are presented. The chapter on fear and the development of courage is especially good. Several chapters are devoted to the nervous child, miscellaneous types of problem children, subintelligence and superintelligence, and the mental hygiene of adolescence. On the whole, those who are interested in the important field of preventive medicine will find in this book an excellent starting-point for further study.

WILLIAM I. FISHBEIN

A study of secondary-school health problems.—Secondary-school health programs are for the most part confused and inadequate. This condition is largely due to the dearth of information in the literature concerning school health problems and procedures. The most recent contribution[1] to the field is therefore both fitting and fortunate since it not only gives a survey of the health programs of a number of secondary schools but also analyzes the problems pertinent to the building of a program which will emphasize all the aspects of health—physical, mental, social, and moral.

The facts constituting the basis of the report are those revealed in a survey of the health programs of fifty-three secondary schools. Each of the schools surveyed itself according to an outline provided by the American Child Health Association. Further information was collected by sending two representatives of the association to visit seventeen of the schools which had the best programs. The data thus collected were studied by an evaluations committee of nine experts representing the fields of health education, physical education, home economics, and education. The findings of the survey and the analysis and appraisal of the committee constitute the material of the report.

According to the survey, the major problems connected with health procedures are as follows: centralizing the administration of health activities in one person or group; determining the extent and best use of health supervision; providing for and effecting the wholesale use of hygienic facilities; instilling in the pupils health knowledge, practices, and ideals through the teaching of the subjects of the curriculum and through the conduct of extra-curriculum activities; and training the pupils to face reality and to make mental, emotional, and social adjustments. Current practices with respect to all these problems and suggestions pertinent to the improvement and enrichment of these practices are lucidly set forth. To the discussion of each of the problems are appended a summary list of recommendations and a bibliography. The final chapters discuss the building of a health program and the checking-up of results and indicate a program which may be used by schools for purposes of self-study.

[1] *Health Trends in Secondary Education.* New York: American Child Health Association (370 Seventh Avenue), 1927. Pp. 154.

The report will be of signal value to all who are concerned with child health, especially administrators and teachers in secondary schools who are interested in appraising and developing the health programs of their schools. The outline used to survey the fifty-three secondary schools and the chapters entitled, "Checking Up on Results" and "Building a Health Program," constitute excellent guides for organizing and putting into operation a program of self-study. The information as to current health practices and the suggestions as to their development and improvement may be used to advantage in planning a health program. The study will go far toward standardizing health procedures in secondary schools.

ALBERT GRANT

The task of the public schools.—The nation is responsible for the proper education of its youth. An understanding of the fundamental ends of education and a knowledge of the present trends in education are essential for a true conception of this responsibility and for the planning of an educational program which will bring about an adequate realization of the desired ends.

In a contribution[1] by an English author to general educational literature an attempt is made to present an educational program of national scope which will provide more adequately for the achievement of the ends most advantageous to the nation. The nation's schools are considered from the standpoint of the school's task, the nation as educator, the schools and their work, and some things the schools should teach. Among the major questions considered are the true aims of education, the place and value of education, and the ways in which education can help to raise the standards of the nation's life.

The guiding thought of the book is indicated by a quotation from a statement of the purpose of elementary education issued by the Board of Education in 1924: "The purpose of the elementary school is to form and strengthen the character and to develop the intelligence of the children intrusted to it and to make the best use of the years available in assisting boys and girls, according to their needs, to fit themselves practically as well as intellectually for the work of life" (p. 1).

The author conceives the purpose of education to be that of helping boys and girls to develop vivid interests and thus to live more valuable lives. The types of interests which the nation's schools should endeavor to develop in children are the "individual, common, and ideal interests which promote their powers of freedom, unity, and faith" (p. 5). Emphasis should be placed first on the development of the best type of individual. Development of the individual for citizenship should be considered secondary in importance to the development of good men.

Authority over the schools can be exerted by the nation through its civilization and culture, through public opinion, and through state action. The ex-

[1] H. Bompas Smith, *The Nation's Schools* [England]. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1927. Pp. viii+308. $2.25.

ercise of such authority will be indicative of the most good if provision for both vocational and cultural training is made in most schools, if the essential national ideals are taught in all schools, if the best culture of the various social groups is taught in the schools connected with these groups, if children are classified according to their ages and individual differences, and if schools and school systems are inspected more and individual pupils less.

The work of the schools will be more far-reaching if concerned more with guiding children in right living and in the formation of right habits and attitudes than with imparting information. The school should be considered a place where children can live ideally. Children learn to live in a wholesome manner by developing ability to govern themselves, by playing games, by imitating their leaders or elders, by performing desirable routine tasks, by working and playing in an atmosphere of worthy ideals and attitudes, and by endeavoring to realize their right interests. The school should begin with the child's interests rather than with subject matter and endeavor to help the child achieve his right interests. Interest in material things, human beings, and ideals should constitute the approach to subject matter. Information should be considered from the standpoint of use rather than from the standpoint of inherent worth.

The fundamental aims of education—the enrichment of the lives of individual children, the maintenance and improvement of the common life of the nation, and the realization of the ultimate ideals of the nation—can be achieved by the schools through the teaching of useful information about vital topics and the establishing of wholesome attitudes toward national ideals and life in general. The chief national interests should be taught through the study of literature, history, geography, foreign languages, etc. The meaning of wealth may be taught through the making of useful things with the hands. Democracy can be taught by practice in self-government, science through the development of interest in truth and human life, beauty by the observance and the making of things beautiful, morals by the creation of a wholesome school atmosphere and school life, and right attitudes toward religion by contact with masters who are "men of faith."

The book is exceedingly well organized and written. The author states what he conceives to be the ends of education, shows how the schools as organized at present contribute or fail to contribute to the realization of these ends, and indicates the type of content of the reorganized curriculum, the methods of instruction, and the plan of operation of the schools of the future which would contribute more adequately toward the realization of the desired ends. The ideas and ideals expressed are wholesome and practical.

R. S. NEWCOMB

EAST CENTRAL STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
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Mathematics in secondary education.—The teaching of mathematics in the secondary schools of the United States has been greatly influenced by the report

of the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements which was published in 1923 under the title, *The Reorganization of Mathematics in Secondary Education*. The first edition of the report has been exhausted, and a new edition[1] has appeared as one of the Riverside Mathematical Monographs, edited by J. W. A. Young. This new edition reprints Part I of the original report and includes an appendix which contains several brief extracts from the investigations reported in Part II and some material regarding the requirements of the College Entrance Examination Board.

The first few pages are devoted to a brief general outline of the report. A formulation of the aims and purposes of mathematical instruction follows. The practical or utilitarian, disciplinary, and cultural aims are enumerated, but the general point of view stated is that "the primary purposes of the teaching of mathematics should be to develop those powers of understanding and of analyzing relations of quantity and of space which are necessary to an insight into and control over our environment and to an appreciation of the progress of civilization in its various aspects, and to develop those habits of thought and of action which will make those powers effective in the life of the individual" (p. 14).

To accomplish these aims and purposes, the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements recommends that mathematics be required of all pupils in Grades VII, VIII, and IX. The course of study in mathematics for these years should contain the fundamental notions of arithmetic, of algebra, of intuitive geometry, and of numerical trigonometry and an introduction to demonstrative geometry. Chapter iii is devoted to the selection and arrangement of material for such a course of study. Six plans for the distribution of time are suggested, all of which are based on the junior high school organization in which Grades VII, VIII, and IX are treated as a unit of time.

The material to be included in the mathematical electives for Grades X, XI, and XII and plans for the arrangement of this material are presented in chapter iv. One of the interesting recommendations in connection with this material is that the elementary ideas and processes of the calculus be included as well as plane and solid demonstrative geometry, advanced algebra, and trigonometry. In accordance with this recommendation, several high schools are now offering courses in the calculus.

College-entrance requirements continue to exert a powerful influence on secondary-school instruction. The committee therefore made a study of the types of instruction in mathematics that might be looked upon as furnishing the best preparation for successful work in college. This study, reported in chapter v, leads to the conclusion that "there appears to be no real conflict of interest between those students who ultimately go to college and those who do not, so

[1] *The Reorganization of Mathematics in Secondary Education (Part I)*. A Report by the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements under the Auspices of the Mathematical Association of America, Inc. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927. Pp. x+182. $1.20.

far as mathematics is concerned" (p. 62). Changes in the statement of college-entrance requirements are recommended in this chapter. Many of these changes have been incorporated in the requirements of the College Entrance Examination Board.

The three remaining chapters are devoted to material more closely related to the work of the classroom teacher. There is a list of the theorems of plane and solid geometry so classified that the teacher may know which are regarded as fundamental. An exposition of the function concept as the unifying element that should dominate the teaching of elementary mathematics follows. Recommendations as to the adoption of a definite and uniform usage of certain terms and symbols conclude the report.

The Appendix contains the definition of the requirements in mathematics of the College Entrance Examination Board and several brief extracts from the investigations in Part II of the earlier report. Extracts from the studies on "The Present Status of Disciplinary Values in Education" by Vevia Blair, "The Training of Teachers of Mathematics" by R. C. Archibald, and "The Testing Movement in Mathematics" by C. B. Upton and a new brief report on "High School Courses in the Calculus" by Vevia Blair are included.

The report represents the thought, work, and opinions of some of the leading educators in the field of mathematics. Its influence is shown in many of the recent textbooks in mathematics in which the authors state that the material included is in accordance with the recommendations of the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements. The report should prove of interest to teachers of mathematics in junior and senior high schools and to secondary-school administrators seeking ideas regarding the course of study in mathematics. Teachers of methods courses in mathematics will find material here for reading and discussion in their classes.

JAMES W. HOGE

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